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ABSTRACT

This issue of the biannual journal of the Language Institute of Japan contains, in addition to book reviews, conference listings, and other announcements, these articles: "Teaching Literature with Cognitive Counseling" (Wayne Pounds); "Extending the Scope of ESL Software for Advanced Students" (Hiroko Wagner); "Psycholinguistics and Listening Comprehension for the ESL Classroom" (John T. Crow); "A Communicative Approach to Teaching English as an International Language" (Larry E. Smith); "'Enryo-Sasshi' Communication: A Key to Understanding Japanese Interpersonal Relations" (Satoshi Ishii); "Overcoming the Pollyanna Syndrome" (Louise Damen); "Ninety Letters to Thailand: Writing for Communication" (Emiko Kitagawa); and "Radio Message: An EFL Board Game for Children" (Metha Bos). (MSE)

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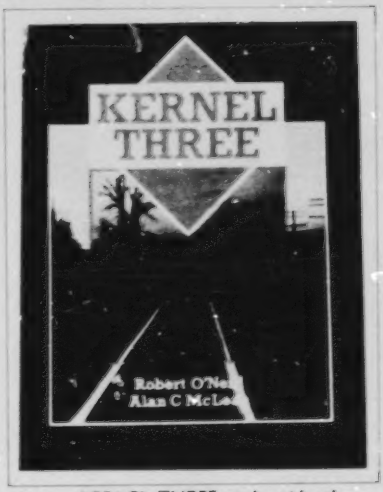

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ABOUT *CROSS CURRENTS*

Cross Currents is a biannual journal published by the Language Institute of Japan in an effort to contribute to an interdisciplinary exchange of ideas within the areas of communication, language skills acquisition and instruction, and cross-cultural training and learning. We are especially interested in articles on: 1) Language teaching and learning, especially regarding English as a Second/Foreign Language and English as an International Language; 2) Language teaching and learning as they apply to the situation in Japan; and 3) Cross-cultural communication issues. We also welcome reviews of recently published books in these areas.

Cross Currents was first published in 1972 with an emphasis on Japan and Japanese students of English. In order to serve the needs of our growing international readership better, we strive to publish articles concerned with teaching methodologies, techniques, and general issues which are multicultural rather than culture-specific. While articles demonstrating solid and thoughtful research are greatly appreciated, always kept in mind is the necessity for readability and practicality for our readers, the classroom teachers. We make every effort to balance abstract and theoretical articles with articles directly applicable to the classroom. Short practical articles are featured in our Bright Ideas section.

* * *

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Summaries of the Articles

Teaching Literature with Cognitive Counseling
Wayne Pounds

If learners need to be understood, as basic Counseling-Learning/Community Language Learning precepts suggest, so do teachers, especially when they are working outside their own culture. In the type of Counseling-Learning format known as Cognitive Counseling, the learners take the role of counselor and the teacher asks them for understanding. The arrangement allows the teacher to present a lecture in such a way that s/he can monitor the learners' comprehension and facilitate their primary task, to understand what is being said in the target language. This article suggests possible procedures for the first day of a literature course in which Cognitive Counseling is used to promote student understanding of a typical lecture. The basic format in which a lecture can be given is described, as well as some exercises to which the counseling procedures lend themselves.

Extending the Scope of ESL Software for Advanced Students
Hiroko Wagner

This article discusses the need to improve laboratory software for advanced students. Because of the nature of the learning environment that language laboratories offer (that is, individuals learning with headphones and tapes), laboratory software up to now has remained audiolingual and heavily manipulative. This has resulted in a gradual decrease in the usage of laboratories. To help solve this problem, the author set about discovering the needs and interests of advanced students and accordingly generated laboratory exercises to improve the four basic skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. This article includes examples of exercises in each of these skill areas.

Psycholinguistics and Listening Comprehensions for the ESL Classroom

John T. Crow

This article develops a theoretical four-step psycholinguistic model for the listening comprehension process. Problems that non-native speakers have with the listening skill are discussed in terms of the model and some general suggestions for teachers are given. The article concludes with a detailed description of a Directed Listening Comprehension Exercise, delineating how the exercise works and how it relates to listening comprehension problems.

A Communicative Approach to Teaching English as an International Language

Larry E. Smith

Communicative competence and communicative language teaching are currently popular terms among language teachers. This article defines these terms in reference to English as an International Language (EIL), rather than English as a Second or Foreign Language (ESL/EFL). In international situations, native speaker communicative competence is not sufficient for native speakers, nor is it necessary for non-native speakers. Therefore, both native and non-native users of English need training in EIL. The author also provides examples of techniques which can be used in a communicative approach to EIL.

***Enryo-Sasshi* Communication: A Key to Understanding Japanese Interpersonal Relations**

Satoshi Ishii

This article explores the characteristics of Japanese interpersonal communication, based upon the author's model of *enryo-sasshi* communication. This type of communication is characterized by a speaker's ambiguity when sending a message and his listener's sensitivity to unspoken messages. This system is a product of several different historical and sociocultural factors unique to Japan and is therefore puzzling and often frustrating to non-Japanese. A visual representation of the author's model is provided.

Bright Ideas

Overcoming the Pollyanna Syndrome

Louise Damen

Too often, ESL students learn vocabulary words having only positive and unnecessarily optimistic connotations. Consequently, they do not discover the real meanings behind cultural euphemisms, how to avoid appearing unnecessarily frank, or how to express negative feelings, all of which are valuable in real communication. This Bright Idea suggests several classroom activities which can be used to encourage students to use a wide range of descriptive terms which carry not only positive, but also negative and neutral evaluative weight.

Ninety Letters to Thailand: Writing for Communication

Emiko Kitagawa

English composition classes in many Japanese high schools are often based on translation exercises. One way to break away from this habit is to have students write letters to students of English in other countries. This Bright Idea contains a lesson plan for such an activity, as well as some reflections upon the exercise, which the author used in her composition class.

Radio Message: An EFL Board Game for Children

Metha Bos

Board Games have been a popular teaching tool for many years. Up to now, however, they have only been used to teach reading and speaking. In this Bright Idea the author shows how board games can also be used to teach listening skills by putting instructions, directions, and other pertinent information on tape. Radio Message, an EFL board game for children, is described in detail and a drawing of the board is included.

ABOUT THIS ISSUE

After three years as editor, Lori Brooks is leaving *Cross Currents* to return to the United States. Her high professional standards, her enthusiasm, and her dedication have touched all aspects of the journal. In particular, the Ten-Year Index which appeared in our previous issue was the result of her hard work and perseverance. She will be greatly missed by all of us who worked with her.

This will also be the last issue for our Advertising Manager, Sheila McEnery, who has done an outstanding job in coordinating advertising and promotion for the journal. Her responsibilities will be assumed by Max Mayer.

We would like to welcome our two new editors, Brian C. Tobin and Laura A. Mayer. Both Laura and Brian have been very active in preparing this issue and they will provide the leadership under which *Cross Currents* enters its second decade of publication.

The current issue looks at language teaching and cross-cultural communication from a number of different perspectives of interest to the ESL classroom teacher. In his article, "A Communicative Approach to Teaching English as an International Language," Larry Smith offers a working definition of English as an International Language (EIL) and suggests classroom activities which can develop competence in international English. As Smith points out, even native speakers can benefit from training in the use of English for international communication.

In "Teaching Literature With Cognitive Counseling," Wayne Pounds looks at the issue of cross-cultural communication from the point of view of the college professor lecturing in a "foreign" language; that is, in a language different from the students' native language. Applying the principles of Curran's Counseling-Learning to the academic setting, Dr. Pounds describes a classroom format in which students work actively to "understand" the teacher and to demonstrate this understanding by restating the teacher's meaning in their own words.

Since communication styles differ from country to country and from culture to culture, effective international communication involves an appreciation of these different approaches to language. In his article, "*Enryo-Sasshi* Communication," Satoshi Ishii describes Japanese communication patterns in light of their historical and social roots. He then proposes a dynamic model of the process by which Japanese speakers modify their spoken messages to promote social harmony.

The remaining two articles in this issue deal with specific language skills and techniques for their development. Although the language laboratory has traditionally been used to promote only listening skills, Hiroko Wagner's article, "Extending the Scope of ESL Software for Advanced Students," shows how the lab can be used for speaking, reading, and writing activities as well. These activities go beyond the audio-lingual orientation of most lab activities to incorporate a more cognitive and communicative approach to language learning.

In "Psycholinguistics and Listening Comprehension for the ESL Classroom," John Crow presents a model of the listening comprehension process based on research in psycholinguistics. This model suggests that failures in listening comprehension often result from an inefficient use of short-term memory and from an unfamiliarity with the differences between informal spoken English and its written equivalent. Dr. Crow describes a simple classroom exercise to develop listening skills.

This issue also contains three Bright Ideas—practical lessons written with the classroom teacher in mind. In "Overcoming the Pollyanna Syndrome," Louise Damen offers an original approach to the teaching of vocabulary. Emiko Kitagawa's "Ninety Letters to Thailand" tells of her experiences in using leter writing in her high school classroom. And Metha Bos' "Radio Message" introduces an original ESL board game for children which uses taped messages as a means for developing listening skills.

As an English language journal published in a non-English-speaking country with an international readership, *Cross Currents* faces daily the practical and ideological questions concerned with the use of English as an international language. In our editorial decisions, our desire to represent and respect different varieties of English and of cultural style at times seems in conflict with our desire to present articles which are useful and understandable to all our readers. We believe that these goals are not inconsistent with one another, although the problem of defining standards of "good writing" or "good English" which are not culturally biased is by no means a simple one. We would like to encourage teachers and writers from all over the world to contribute to this discussion and to help *Cross Currents* become a forum for the wide variety of views and voices which distinguish the uses of English throughout the world today.

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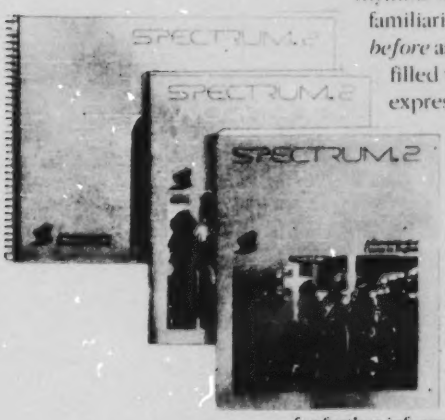

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Spring 1984

Teaching Literature with Cognitive Counseling

Wayne Pounds

Charles A. Curran, in *Counseling-Learning: A Whole-Person Model for Education* (1972), recognizes that the need of the teacher to be understood in the struggle to communicate ideas is of the same kind as the beginning student's need to be understood in the struggle to communicate in a new language. Both have a sense of exclusion from the group. Students as "learners" want to become "knowers." Similarly, the teacher as "knower" is in an alienated state since, by definition, he cannot belong to the group as a non-knower. If this is true in general, then the language teacher whose native language is not the same as that of the students may be more alienated yet. A community resolution, a state of belonging, can be brought about by the learners acting as cognitive counselors. In this way the group of learners provides the teacher/knower with understanding responses.

The first part of the essay gives the theoretical basis in Counseling-Learning for this extension of Curran's methods. The second suggests possible procedures for the first day of a Cognitive Counseling classroom. The third describes the basic lecture format and three exercises to which the counseling procedures lend themselves.

Cognitive Counseling

The term Cognitive Counseling calls for some explanation at the outset. Although the term is hardly new, it is one which writers

Wayne Pounds (Ph.D. in American literature, University of Kansas) teaches in the English-American literature department of Baika Women's College, Ibaraki-shi, Osaka. He has taught literature and language in the United States, Algeria, and Spain.

The author would like to thank Professor Thomas Pendergast of Osaka Foreign University, who some years ago suggested the basic procedure described in this paper.

other than Curran himself have not discussed much. There is a tendency to think of *Cognitive Counseling* and *Counseling-Learning* as being identical to *Community Language Learning* (CLL). In the CLL format, in which a circle of students sits around a tape recorder, student-centered interaction is emphasized and the teacher/knower stands outside the group as a counselor. The role of the teacher/knower in this situation is to give students confidence at early stages of language learning by showing them that they have been understood in their struggle to express themselves in a new language. This format, however, may have made us overly conscious of a single side of the Counseling-Learning model. If one looks at Curran's work as a whole, including not only his published writing but the cassette and video tapes of his classroom teaching and counseling, a different format emerges. What Curran seems to regard as characteristic of Cognitive Counseling is the arrangement of a lecture with the teacher standing in front of a group. In this style, the teacher/knower presents himself as a *client* and asks the *learners* for counseling and understanding. Relatively seldom does Curran use the format of a circle of students sitting around a tape recorder with the teacher standing outside the circle. How, the reader may well ask, can we conveniently distinguish among Counseling-Learning, Community Language Learning, and Cognitive Counseling?

Counseling-Learning is the broad discipline which includes the other two terms. Curran defines it simply as "task-oriented counseling" (1972: 29–30, 112). He leave open the specification of what the task is to be, since "the concept of Counseling-Learning can be extended to any relationship between the knower and the learner" (1978:8). He explains:

> Although basic research for arriving at a counseling-learning model was carried out in the learning of foreign languages, it has been noted elsewhere [cf., Curran 1976:20] that this model "has implications beyond this in that it can readily be adapted to the learning of other subjects, especially those that become charged with fear and anxiety." Not only is this counseling-learning model applicable to other subjects, but it can also be applied in a variety of forms in the classroom. (1972:145)

Community Language Learning, in contrast, is distinguished as "a particular application of our research findings to the learning of foreign or second languages" (1976:5). Stevick describes the basic

procedure of CLL as an alternation of two steps: *investment*, the phase in which "the learner commits himself," and *reflection*, in which "the learner stands back and looks at what he, as part of the community, has done in the investment phase" (1976:126). In reflection the learners have the opportunity to actively express themselves in regard to the learning experience and be understood by the knower-counselor. This understanding, as it frees the students from any emotional bind the presentation may have produced in them, allows them to understand and accept their own experience. In addition, as each student speaks, the private world of personal feeling and experience is shared with others, thus fostering the community dynamic of the group as a whole. Authors like Stevick are usually careful to describe the principles of Counseling-Learning (involving such concepts as learner security, investment, and reflection) in order to provide a theoretical background for the particular Community Language Learning situation they are presenting. Describing principles, however, has the undesired effect of making Counseling-Learning seem as though it were a theoretical background only.

In fact, Counseling-Learning includes a developed core of methods called Cognitive Counseling, of which Community Language Learning is one particular variation, developed initially for purposes of research. Essentially, Cognitive Counseling characterizes an advanced learning relationship in which the learners become counselors and the knower is the client. The learners' understanding responses center on the cognitive content (in this case, information about a literary text) of the teacher's presentation. By acting as counselors to the teacher, students show that they have understood what has been said to them. Through "understanding" the teacher affectively, they gradually acquire an intellectual understanding of the content of the lecture itself. In Curran's work Cognitive Counseling takes place through the medium of one shared language, but the present essay is concerned with a foreign language class in which two languages are involved, the target language, and the students' native language. Nonetheless, in applying Curran's ideas to the teaching of literature in the language classroom, the class can be regarded not as a variation on Community Language Learning but as an additional application of Cognitive Counseling, just as in the past the latter has been applied to such subjects as reading, mathematics, and business writing (Curran 1978:8).

Although I mean for my remarks here to apply outside the particular classroom situation from which they have developed, they can best be understood in terms of that limited situation. The class is a fourth year lecture in American literature at a women's college in Japan. Although the students have studied English for approximately ten years, their study has been largely confined to reading and writing taught by Japanese teachers using translation techniques. In their first two years of college, most of them had audiolingual drill courses in "English conversation," including one period per week with a native speaker of English. By their fourth year they have also been guided through one or two classics of American or British literature, but in the great majority of cases they cannot read independently, and their listening and speaking skills are hardly more than mid-intermediate level. If I were to speak to the class in a normal lecture style, no matter how clearly I spoke, most of the students would not be able to follow what I was saying. What (apart from wishing for a complete overhaul of the national program of English study) does the teacher do in this situation? How is it possible to lecture?

One possibility is for the teacher to act as a client and ask the class for understanding. To see what this deceptively simple statement means in practice, it is necessary to go back for a moment to the fundamental concept of roles. In the counseling situation, the two basic roles are the *counselor*, the person who understands, and the *client*, the person who asks to be understood. The roles, however, are not constant. In terms of Curran's five stages of growth from the complete dependence of the embryo to the independence of adulthood, in the first two stages (birth and childhood) and well into the third (early adolescence) the teacher/knower is the counselor and the student/learner is the client (1976:52–55; 1972: 128–137). In the fourth and fifth stages (adolescence and adulthood), the roles are reversed, as "the learner becomes the counselor and the knower becomes the client" (1978:82–83).

According to Curran, adolescent and adult learners generally enter a counseling situation in "at least a stage-three relationship with a knower" by virtue of their strong "development of self-identity and self-consciousness." Thus they are at the stage when a reversal of roles is appropriate, in fact necessary, "if the learning process is to continue" (1978:82–83). In the foreign or second language classroom, this reversal can be facilitated by the sharing

of a common language. Except in the case of very advanced students, this shared language is not of course the target language but is rather the students' native language. When the teacher and students are natives of the same country or when the teacher has acquired a working command of the students' language, this will present no problem, and later we will discuss the use of "student language experts" who can be relied upon by those teachers who know only the target language. As an adjunct to the target language, this shared language can be used to create a situation in which adolescents or adults can become counselors and the teacher can take the role of client. In this way, adolescent and adult learners can progress beyond Curran's third stage of growth and into the independence of adulthood.

In the specific classroom situation described here, the task toward which the counseling is oriented is understanding a lecture on a literary text, which has been read beforehand. The lecture in turn aims at helping the students understand what they have read. As mentioned above, these principles and procedures can of course be applied to other learning situations.

Procedures the First Day

The first and most basic task of the teacher in this situation is to create an atmosphere of trust, and essentially this is done first by the teacher, who trusts the students to understand. The first class meeting might begin with the teacher's saying something like this: "I want us to have a special kind of relationship. I want you to understand me. And I want you to show me that you understand by telling me, in your native language and in your own words, what you understand." Depending on the group's level, a statement more complex than this might not be understood and so would defeat its purpose, and even this statement may be too complicated. The standard procedure with any large group is to work with a small group of three to five student/counselors (Curran 1972:115–116). The teacher asks for volunteers to sit at the front of the room in chairs pulled slightly out to suggest a separate group. Probably all that this first group on the first day will understand is that they are agreeing to sit at the front, where no doubt something more is going to be asked of them.

Now the teacher as client goes back to the original short statement ("I want you to understand me . . . "), since it may not have

been understood the first time and there has probably been no understanding response. S/he repeats the statement, trusting that the student/counselors will have some rudimentary understanding of the request. The initial understanding can be very difficult to obtain because of the radical novelty of the proprosal. Initially the prospective counselors will understand only that they are being asked to repeat what the client says, and they may find this hard to believe. Working with this opening two- or three-sentence statement, the client asks the counselors to say in their own words what they understand. They may have to be allowed to discuss the matter among themselves in their native language before they are clear about what they are being asked to do. It is extremely important that the teacher/client be prepared to accept the confusion and silence (or pandemonium, depending on the culture) which the novel proposal is going to produce. The teacher/client should never forget the importance of understanding the learners affectively and should always be prepared to drop the role of cognitive (knowing) client and become the affective (understanding) counselor to the group (as will be developed below).

Here some elaboration is necessary with regard to the rationale of the small group and the nature of the responsibilities of the teacher/client. Whether the class is large or small, the small group of student/counselors is chosen to represent the entire class. The members of this group are changed at fixed intervals (usually fifteen or twenty minutes) announced in advance. Students should be told that the client is speaking to the counselors only and that the others in the class are to listen or "overhear." This will define very simply the role of the overhearers and let those students know that they too are involved in what is happening. Even if the class has as few as five or six members, it is better for them to work in two small groups. The small group symbolizes the basic contract by which time and activities are determined; it establishes the role of overhearers for those who are not counseling; and the periodic change of members provides a rest from the rigorous demands of counseling. The agreement to sit at the front represents the agreement to understand the teacher/client, and the student/counselors in return receive the security of knowing they will be at the front only for the agreed-upon time (La Forge 1977:377). (When the initial contract is proposed to the very first group, the members should be given a chance to withdraw, since the contract was not

understood when they came to the front.) Sitting slightly apart from the rest of the class represents not only the agreement but the responsibility to understand the client. In order to foster a spirit of mutual support among the group members, the teacher/client should have them sit close together and allow them to discuss among themselves the meaning of what they hear.

The teacher as client in this situation has responsibilities which may be grouped into three rough areas. The first is the responsibility to foster through personal example the atmosphere of trust that will allow the counseling agreement to be established. Secondly, there is a responsibility to speak so that the utterance, either in terms of content or enunciation, will not present unnecessary difficulties. This responsibility is implicit when the teacher asks for understanding in a situation where slang, ironical humor, or overly abstract locutions will produce misunderstanding. The students' security varies directly with their degree of comprehension of what the client-knower says. A third and parallel responsibility is to clarify the task at hand, since the definition of the task, the delimitation of its time and goals, is a large element in the learners' security. This clarification will be most necessary at the outset, when all the procedures are new, and the need for it will diminish to some degree as the procedures become familiar.

After the opening proposal has been understood and accepted, the client-knower's first impulse may be to explain what Counseling-Learning is, but probably this is too difficult and anything more than what is absolutely necessary should be avoided. The terminology may profitably be restricted to what occurs in the sentence, "The client is the person who wants to be understood, and the counselors are the persons who want to understand." This will adequately define two of the roles and the relationship between them. From here on the proper procedure is to immerse the counselors in the experience of understanding the client and then afterward, with the teacher taking the role of group counselor, to ask them to reflect on what happened.

The client-knower should begin by talking about something very simple, perhaps giving a short self-introduction in the target language. This provides a valuable opportunity for the counselors to practice counseling and to gain confidence before encountering the subject matter of the course. Many students experience a temporary confusion when they first try listening in the target

language and responding in their own. The confusion quickly disappears, but it should be allowed for initially. If the target language is English and the teacher is myself, the teacher/client might introduce himself with the statement,

My name is Wayne Pounds.

He speaks one sentence and waits patiently to hear the understanding in the counselors' native language. Proceeding in this way gives the student/counselors the opportunity, at an early stage, to see what "understanding" means. At first they may think they are being asked to translate, and they will respond with a native language equivalent for the client's sentence that will include first person indicators. If we take Spanish as a first language, a counselor might respond,

Me llamo Wayne Pounds.

Here the teacher/client can easily point out the difference between understanding and translating by showing the counselors that he has not been understood. In terms of understanding the client, the response that fits is clearly

(*Vd.*) *se llama* Wayne Pounds.

In this way, over a period of time the client helps the counselors to refine their conception of what understanding is, and the latter will move away from literal translation toward grasping the essential meaning of what the client says, a meaning that will reflect not the counselors' world but the client's.

After the self-introduction the client may go on to talk about the objectives of the class insofar as they are determined by the curriculum, or about the background of the first reading assignment, or whatever is most appropriate. At this point the concern is more with form than content, since once the form of the communication is mastered the knower and the learners will be freed to deal with the content. They are establishing a communication, and once it is established individual capability is the only limit to the kind of content with which it may be used. Initially, the client's sentences should be quite short, and only as the counselors gradually speak with ease are the utterances lengthened. After each sentence the client stops to allow the counselors whatever time they need to make their understanding response.

On this first day (and, if feasible, every class day thereafter) the teacher must reserve the last ten or fifteen minutes of the class' time for a reflection session. In reflection the roles change and the teacher/client becomes the affective counselor to the group (Curran 1972:182,190). The teacher as counselor understands the learners in their feelings about the learning experience.

In reflection the knower-counselor does not answer questions and does not comment; both teacher and students are held fast to the defined roles of counselor and client. As the teacher introduces the students to reflection on the first day, again abstract or unnecessary explanation is avoided. Putting the students who have counseled together in a single group, the teacher may say something like, "Now we're going to change roles. For the next ten minutes I'm going to understand you the same way you've been understanding me. I want you to tell me how you feel about what we have been doing, and I will understand you." Since it is absolutely essential that the students comprehend what is being asked of them, the teacher will want to repeat this in the students' native language or ask for an understanding response from someone who seems to have comprehended. The client-learners should speak in their native language, for even though some of them may be capable of self-expression in the target language, it is more important that everyone understand. Or, if a client-learner makes a statement in the target language, the counselor can ask that s/he repeat it in the native language. The counselor responds in the target language; or, if the latter is insufficiently understood, each response is made twice, first in the target language, then in the clients' native language. If a question arises during reflection, the counselor notices it by saying, "You have a question about this," and respect for the question is shown by suggesting that time for questions can be taken after the reflection period is over. But the roles that have been defined for the reflection period are carefully observed. Later, in addition to taking time for questions, the counselor-knower will also want to consider what the students have said during reflection as it affects the procedures and goals of the class, and comments or clarifications may be in order.

Later Procedures

One version of what might happen on the first day of class has now been described. If the description was concrete, it was not in

order to be prescriptive but to make the examples as suggestive as possible. What follows is an outline of the lecture format in subsequent class meetings and some subordinate exercises that may be used once the cognitive counseling procedure is established and the students are able to counsel and to be counseled. In one exercise the teacher assumes the role of client and in the second and third exercises the students are clients.

Once the basic counseling procedure has been established, the teacher/client can proceed to offer a lecture which in content will be of the same kind as that of any lecture course. But throughout the presentation the students are in the role of cognitive counselors, actively struggling to understand what is said. After each sentence the teacher/client waits without urging or prompting for the struggle to produce a fitting response. If the response does not fit, it should be simple for the teacher/client, who has understood both the original sentence and the response, to go to the source of the misunderstanding. This may mean writing a new word on the blackboard or diagramming and further explaining a difficult expression. But the client-knower then goes back to the original sentence, with exactly the same wording, allowing the counselors to correct their understanding. The client-knower's language skills are exercised to the full in the struggle to maintain a dialogue with the counselors' understanding. Each sentence of the lecture must be formed in such a way that it follows immediately from what the counselors have just understood and leads them on to the next step. The teacher/client is careful always about diction, syntax, enunciation, and speed and limits the length of the sentence to fit the comprehension of the counselor—a process called "chewing." Curran writes, "Somewhat as an adult eats food, the learner must have a chance to 'chew' each word or phrase. In this way the learner is gradually able to absorb and integrate what either is unknown or may have been simply intellectually recognized" (1972:157). Proceeding this way is slow, but when it is skillfully done it results in an average comprehension of between eighty and a hundred percent. Since the teacher/client's principal departure from normal speech is the use of silence between sentences, sentence by sentence this rate of comprehension is achieved without unrealistic distortion of natural speech.

After a few meetings, one point that is likely to emerge in the reflection sessions is that the students want a chance to initiate

discussion and to express themselves. During the reflection session, of course, the counselor's role is to understand the client's expression of frustration and nothing more, but after it is over s/he may choose to respond and suggest an appropriate activity. In a similar way, once the reflection session has ended, questions which arose may be brought up again, or the teacher may clarify some apparent confusion in relation to the lecture or point out areas of strength or weakness in the students' performance. Here we should be careful not to allow ourselves to be misled by a simplistic understanding of the concept of nondirective counseling. Being the teacher includes being both client and counselor.[1] What is most important here is that, in whatever role the teacher acts, s/he defines the role and respects the limits which the definition imposes.

A subordinate exercise with the teacher as client is really an extension of the lecture format and is directed toward a specific kind of reading problem, in which students have become bogged down in the habit of word-for-word translation with a dictionary. Let us accept for a moment the hypothesis that if the students know the overall plot or argument of what they read, they can read faster and with less recourse to the dictionary. In the role of client the teacher previews the next reading assignment, pointing out the essential features. Then a greater number of pages can be assigned than would otherwise be read in the given time. In this way, Cognitive Counseling procedures may be used to encourage increased reading speed and the habit of reading for the meaning of the informing narrative or argument.

What will almost inevitably result from this procedure is that what the students understand from the teacher's preview will not agree exactly with what they understand from their own reading. This discrepancy can be used to focus more closely on the skills of aural and reading comprehension by making the discrepancy the subject of an exercise in which the learners become the clients. This is done by dividing the class into pairs and asking them to counsel each other using the procedure they have learned from counseling the teacher. Student A uses the target language to give his/her understanding of the reading (or the preview), stopping after each sentence while B counsels in the native language. Then the roles are reversed, with B speaking the target language and A

[1] The troublesome term "nondirective" has created misunderstanding of the counselor's role both in therapeutic counseling and in C-L. For a balanced view see Rardin (1977: 463–466) and, more generally, Rogers (1965:3–64).

counseling in the native language. Although the exercise ostensibly provides the students with a chance to speak the target language, what actually emerges in the ensuing reflection is usually not so much the satisfaction of using the target language, though that does emerge. Rather, the students typically point with interest to their discovery that their individual accounts were different. In this way the students grow in awareness of the divergence of understanding that results when two people listen to or read the same thing. Having peers to counsel in the native language also allows the students speaking the target language to monitor themselves, with the result that their awareness of the possibility of not making themselves understood and of the kind of mistake they are likely to make increases. During this exercise the teacher takes the role of a language "resource person" or "language expert" whom the students will ask for words and expressions as they are needed. Otherwise the teacher does not interfere.

Another exercise with the students as clients simply takes the content of the course as a basis for a conversation using the classic CLL format of a small group in a circle with a tape recorder. One way to focus this exercise is to conceive of it as the discussion of a literary text. In the role of language counselor the teacher can introduce the structures and idioms that are typically employed in this kind of discussion. If the students' culture is one in which conversational initiative is not readily taken, it is appropriate for the teacher to offer a topic question, one which is provocative and values-oriented. The teacher should also provide a technique for selecting the first speaker. This kind of CLL exercise involving a tape recording is followed with a two-phase reflection. The first phase is directed toward how the students feel about what they have done, as described above; and the second is any appropriate standard procedure, such as those described by Stevick (1976: 125–133), for digesting the contents of a taped conversation. In this manner the students learn how to talk about what they read, and again they have the opportunity to express themselves in the target language.

All of the preceding description of procedures has been based on the assumption that the teacher shares or has a working command of the students' native language. Where this is not the case, adaptations can usually be made so that within certain limits most of the procedures can still be employed. As the students approach or

enter stage four, where the student is "speaking freely and complexly in the foreign language" (Curran 1976:30), both the student-as-counselor exercises and the group reflection can be done entirely in the target language. In situations where most of the students do not have this level of competence and the teacher's command of the students' native language is not adequate, a few relatively advanced students may sometimes be found who can be taught to fill the gap, if the gap is not too large. In the student-as-counselor exercises such a student language expert could help the client-knower when there was uncertainty as to whether a response was appropriate to the context. In the student-as-client exercises the advanced students would act as language counselors while the teacher acted as language expert; that is, they would supply needed locutions to the students doing the exercise and consult the teacher when their knowledge failed.[2] Finally, the student expert would act as translator during the group reflection session, so that both the counselor and the clients would have the freedom to express themselves in their native tongues.

Conclusion

Procedures described merely as such have a mechanical air, and it may seem as though there were no limit to their application. Yet, it must be insisted again that there is nothing inherent in any procedure described here that per se promises certainly to produce learning. Everything depends on the counseling and language skills of the teacher. Curran, however, observes:

> In wanting to stress the far greater depth and intensity of the skill of understanding, we do not want to go to the extreme of implying that the reader cannot acquire this skill without long and strenuous effort. Rather, like the analogy of learning a foreign language, sometimes even a small amount of German or French can be quite helpful, especially when there is a need of asking directions, or whatever it might be, in a foreign country. So even a limited knowledge of the real skill of affective-cognitive understanding can be of immeasurable help and aid. (1978:6)

[2] This use of a student who mediates between the language expert and the group has a precedent in established C-L/CLL procedures. I saw student language experts used in this way in a CLL workshop at Counseling-Learning Institutes, Sinsinawa, Wisconsin, August 1979. There seems, however, to be very little direct description of the procedure in the C-L/CLL literature. For some ideas, see Curran 1976:29, 30, 38, the front cover illustration and inside flap. See also Curran 1972:137-138.

Keeping this qualification in mind then, and assuming that the counseling relationship with the class can be established along the lines indicated, what can we hope to accomplish through Cognitive Counseling?

We can hope to establish a creative dialogue between the teacher and the students even across the rift between their different language backgrounds and even in discussing complex literary works. The students will take upon themselves an active responsibility for their own learning, and they will become actively engaged with the teacher and with each other, fostering a learning community to which both student and teacher feel that they belong. In the group reflection sessions that follow the investment phases (lecture or exercise), basic learning anxieties and self-defeating attitudes on the part of the students may be understood and thus can take a positive turn, "opening the way to further learning" (Curran 1972:190). To the extent that the teacher's counseling and language skills can facilitate the students' understanding, the teacher will have the satisfaction of being understood in her/his cognitive self-expression. Again, to the same extent that the facilitation is accomplished, the students will have the satisfaction of encountering a literary text through living speech in the target language.

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Extending the Scope of ESL Software for Advanced Students

Hiroko Wagner

When we look at language laboratories nowadays, we notice that they are obviously underused, and some are even left out of the university curriculum. One of the main reasons for this is the outdatedness of laboratory software due to a shift in approach in language teaching—a shift from the audiolingual to the cognitive approach. Thinking of the ultimate objective of teaching languages, that is, the acquisition of communicative competence, many ESL teachers today feel that students learn the target language better through person-to-person communication than through machine-oriented isolated learning in language laboratories. They have deemphasized the rigid use of the mim-mem (mimic and memorize) and pat-pra (pattern practice) type of exercise, saying that ultimate dependence on these exercises will not promote the kind of thinking and self-expression that the student needs for communication.

Because of the nature of the learning environment that laboratories offer (that is, individuals learning by the use of a headphone and tape), laboratory software remained audiolingual and heavily manipulative for a long time. Thus, laboratory exercises and drills were criticized by language teachers for being outdated or of use only for students in the lower levels. We find a number of publications by language scholars and teachers complaining that laboratory software does not meet the needs and interests of ESL students (especially those in the upper levels). (See Wardhaugh 1968, So

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1974, Forrest 1976, Dobbyn 1977, Taylor 1979, and Epting and Bowen 1979.)

One of the solutions to this problem, I believe, is to determine the needs and interests of advanced students and to generate laboratory materials accordingly. As Wardhaugh observes: "We must respond to the different needs of students, the different language patterns they exhibit, and the different inclinations and motives that they have in learning. . . . I see a need for lots of examples, lots of variety, and lots of context-oriented work" (1967:111).

In agreement with Wardhaugh's suggestion, I observed our students in the laboratory, discussed common problems with them, and kept in close communication with ESL teachers. In our program at the University of New Orleans I noticed a great emphasis on reading and writing and consequently I tried to integrate exercises which developed these skills into the existing oral exercises.

Topics of great interest to our students are those which concern their immediate environment; for example, events, locations, and student life at the University of New Orleans. More specifically, telephone conversations and academic lectures on various subjects provide useful material for listening and speaking exercises. For reading and writing exercises, selected texts from American short stories or folk tales, essays written by international students or immigrants to this country, and college texts are effective. Lastly, students show a great interest in international political and economic matters reported in news broadcasts, weekly magazines, and newspapers.

One of the reasons I started this project was because of the lack of context-oriented exercises in the language laboratory. Admittedly, it takes more time to develop context-based activities which involve a variety of situations and examples, but I felt strongly that advanced students needed this type of exercise in order to develop their awareness of the flow of English and the logic involved in English expressions. By using the needs and interests of the students to develop context-based exercises, I hoped to extend the scope of laboratory materials and to prepare the students for a leap from the manipulative stage to the communicative stage. The exercises that I generated were designed to improve the four basic skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Listening Comprehension

Listening comprehension is one of the most difficult skills that students have to develop. Belasco believes that this problem basically derives from the students' lack of exposure to live English (Belasco 1969:196). Such scholars as Suzanne Herschenhorn (1979), Leslie Dickenson (1970), and Wilga Rivers (1981) also support this view and recommend that students be exposed to live English as much as possible so that they can get used to the "infinite variety of combinations of live language" (Herschenhorn 1979:67).

Using a format from *Classroom Techniques: Foreign Languages and English as a Second Language* (Allen and Valette 1977), I chose topics which were interesting and relevant to our ESL students. The following exercises are in the form of telephone conversations:

Listening Comprehension (Exercise A)

W+T[1] (Directions) Imagine that you happen to be in one of the offices in the English Department at UNO. In Step 1 listen to the speaker and say the student's part. In Step 2 write down the message in the blank space provided on your worksheet.

W+T (Step 1)

speaker: Hello, this is Dr. Miller. Is Professor Johns in?

W student: I'm sorry, but Dr. Johns is not here. Would you like to leave a message?
(or)
I'm sorry, but Dr. Johns is not here. Could I take a message?

T (Step 2)

speaker: Yes, tell him that we'll have to close section 23 of Composition in 1157. No, ah . . . on second thought, that's section 24, not 23. There're just too few students for the section to make. Have him give me a call at 6824 if he's not clear on this.

Listening Comprehension (Exercise B)

W+T (Directions) Imagine that you are in the University dormitory. Follow the same procedure described above.

[1] Throughout this paper, W means "on the worksheet," T "on the tape," and W+T "both on worksheet and tape."

W+T (Step 1)

speaker: Hello, is Mark there? (The speaker sounds like a college student.)

W student: Hold on. I'll check to see if he's here. Sorry, he's not in right now. Can I take a message?

T (Step 2)

speaker: Yeah, ah . . . this is Barney. Just tell him ah . . . I can't come and pick him up today. My car went bad on me. Ah . . . we'll try to see that . . . that "ET" at Orpheum Theater in University Plaza this Saturday. It'll be from 2:00 p.m. If he wants to join us there, he's gotta get there by bus.

In both exercises, the text of Step 1 is written on the worksheet to help students visually familiarize themselves with different styles of language and practice semiformal and informal short conversations. At the same time, the students learn these expressions by repeating them. I categorize this part of the exercise as audiolingual.

Step 2 is a listening comprehension exercise which requires students to listen, think, and remember. Since this step is only on tape and not on the worksheet, students have to listen to the speaker, think about what s/he is saying, and remember the details accurately in order to write down the messages.

I tried to use natural English in the utterances of the speakers and at the same time to contextualize them in order to clarify the meaning of each message.

I notice that our students are very interested in finding out what is going on in the world. Yet I often hear them complain that they have difficulty understanding the news on radio or television. Because of this, I developed a listening comprehension exercise to help them tackle a newscast (cf., Allen and Valette 1977: 205). It is a guided listening comprehension exercise in which the students read several questions before they listen to a newscast so that they know what to focus on. Using Allen and Valette's format I recorded part of the NBC News broadcast of August 2, 1982, and developed the following exercise for advanced students:

Listening Comprehension (Exercise C)

W (Directions) Read the following questions:

1. In which city is the fighting going on?
2. What happened to the cease-fire?
3. Who had a grim face?
4. What did the President want?
5. How did Israeli Foreign Minister Yitzak Shamir react to the President's statement?

W Now listen to the tape with the preceding questions in mind. You may rewind the tape and listen again to complete the exercises.

T Good evening. With the guns still firing in Beirut, with yet another cease-fire broken, a grim-faced President Reagan had a tough talk today with Israeli Foreign Minister Yitzak Shamir. The President reportedly told him he wants a complete end to the fighting. Shamir did not back down but blamed the Palestinians.

W+T Stop the tape and answer the questions on your worksheet. After you are done, start the tape again for the recorded sample answers.

T The sample answers are as follows:

1. The fighting is going on in Beirut.
2. The cease-fire is broken again.
3. President Reagan had a grim face.
4. He wants a complete end to the fighting.
5. He didn't give in but blamed the Palestinians.

While audiolingual exercises basically demanded that the students listen and repeat, this exercise is designed to make students listen to and think about the context. Writing is an important part of these cognitive exercises because by writing, students are able to show the degree of their comprehension. Speaking can also be incorporated into some exercises, thus providing work on the four basic skills.

Speaking

The objective of language learning is "the production of speakers competent to communicate in the target language" (Paulston and Bruder 1976:56). Since the nature of communication involves more than one person, students need to use the phonetic and

structural skills which they have acquired at the manipulative stage, in a setting which calls for spontaneous interaction in order to develop communicative competence. Rivers is one of the scholars who emphasize the necessity of including "skill using" practice in language teaching as early as possible (Rivers 1972:76). Activities like games, role playing, debate, or discussion are very effective in that sense, allowing the students to practice spontaneous communication in the classroom.

While many communicative activities are not well suited for laboratory use, Rivers suggests that "situation tapes" can be used in the laboratory to help prepare students to think and create in a given situation and thus to communicate more spontaneously (1981:44). As the name indicates, a certain situation is presented in a conversation between two or more people. I selected situational contexts according to the students' needs and interests, as illustrated in the following exercise for advanced students. Possible student responses are provided in order to illustrate how the tape works.

Speaking Exercise

W+T (Directions)		Imagine that you happen to meet your friends, Bill and Nancy, near the French Quarter in New Orleans. Listen to the tape once through to understand the situation. The second time through fill in your part orally when the bell rings.
T	Bill:	Hi!
T	Nancy:	Hi, are you going to see the Mardi Gras parade?
	Student:	*Yeah, I'm going to meet Kim in Jackson Square.* (or) *No. I saw it last year.*
T	Nancy:	Betty, who's from New Orleans, once told me that you can see the best parades near the French Quarter.
T	Bill:	My friend told me it's wiser to see a parade in Metairie. Do you know anything about that?
	Student:	*Yeah, as far as I know, the French Quarter is the best place to be.* (or) *No, not really.*
T	Nancy:	Well, what should we do then?

T	Bill:	I don't care, but I could go for some beignets and coffee with chickory.
T	Nancy:	Let's all go to Café du Monde. It's close to Jackson Square.
	Student:	*Yeah, that's a good idea. Maybe we can see Kim from the Café.* (or) *That sounds good.*
T	Nancy:	What time does the next parade begin?
	Student:	*In about an hour, I think.* (or) *Not until 4:00.*
T	Bill:	I've got to get more beads in the parades.
	Student:	*You can have mine.* (or) *I don't understand why people go wild for those plastic beads.*

In this exercise, the students are supposed to express their part in dialogue form according to whatever the situation demands. This is an example of a cognitive exercise in which the colloquial context forces students to reason and create in the target language without disturbing the coherence of the passage. This is still a controlled cognitive exercise but it generates spontaneous speaking in a realistic situation.

Reading

There are a lot of commercial reading texts available for ESL students. These reading texts in general consist of stories or reading passages and step-by-step comprehension exercises. Reading textbooks in the classroom, however, is not enough to develop students' reading skills. Many students who have gone through basic ESL courses with some reading program admit that they still experience shock when they face the unsimplified target language used in literature or other academic books.

To solve this problem, I believe students should be encouraged to read as extensively as possible. Paulston and Bruder support this notion and recommend that students start reading unsimplified books at intermediate level. To learn reading simply by reading, they suggest a reading program in which ESL students start with

easy materials at first to gain confidence and then extend their reading to the college-level text books used in their own fields (Paulston and Bruder 1976:199 and 200).

For this reason, I believe that an extensive reading program should be put into practice in the language laboratory. The reading program implemented in the laboratory is slightly more controlled than the individual free reading that students do without any help. However it is far less guided than reading in the classroom.

In an attempt to develop exercises for an extensive reading program in the lab, we should focus on more general questions than the carefully detailed, comprehensive questions found in intensive reading exercises. Indeed, extensive reading, in contrast to intensive reading, demands that students be "contextual guessers," grasping only the main ideas of the reading text (Cohen 1980:56).

Having observed the kinds of books that students choose from our laboratory, I selected an unsimplified short story, John Steinbeck's *The Pearl*, and, using a format devised by Paulston and Bruder (1976:194 and 201), I developed the following exercise for advanced students:

Reading Exercise

W+T (Directions) Before you start reading this book, answer the following questions on your worksheet:

		(Sample answers)
T	1. What is the title of the book?	*The Pearl*
	2. Who is the author?	John Steinbeck
	3. When was it published?	in 1945
	4. How many chapters are there?	six
	5. Find the topic headings if there are any.	no headings

W+T *A town is a thing like a colonial animal. A town has a nervous system and a head and shoulders and feet. A town is a thing separate from all other towns, so that there are no two towns alike. And a town has a whole emotion. How news travels through a town is a mystery not easily to be solved. News seems to move faster than small boys can scramble and dart to tell it over the fences.*

Before Kino and Juana and the other fishers had come to Kino's brush house, the nerves of the town were pulsing and vibrating with the news–Kino had found the Pearl of

the World. Before panting little boys could strangle out the words, their mothers knew it. The news swept on past the brush houses, and it washed in a foaming wave into the priest walking in his garden, and it put a thoughtful look in his eyes and a memory of certain repairs necessary to the church. He wondered what the Pearl would be worth. And he wondered whether he had baptized Kino's baby, or married him for that matter. The news came to the shopkeepers, and they looked at men's clothes that had not sold so well.

The news came to the doctor where he sat with a woman whose illness was age, though neither she nor the doctor would admit it. And when it was made plain who Kino was, the doctor grew stern and judicious at the same time. "He is a client of mine," the doctor said. "I am treating his child for a scorpion sting." And the doctor's eyes rolled up a little in their fat hammocks and he thought of Paris. He remembered the hard-faced woman who had lived with him as a beautiful and kind girl, although she had been none of these three. The doctor looked past his aged patient and saw himself sitting in a restaurant in Paris and a waiter was just opening a bottle of wine. *(Steinbeck 1945:26-27)*

T What is the central idea of this section? Stop the tape and select the appropriate answer from the list provided on your worksheet. On completion of the exercise, start the tape again to find out if your answer is correct.

W 1. The whole town was sincerely happy for Kino and Juana because Kino had found the Pearl of the World.

2. Kino and Juana told the townspeople that they would baptize their baby and pay the doctor for the treatment, now that they had found the Pearl of the World.

3. The town is full of greedy people. The news that Kino had found the Pearl of the World excited the people in town to seek more things for themselves.

4. In this town, the priest and the doctor get the best news first as the news that Kino had found the Pearl of the World reached them very quickly. This is because they are very helpful people.

T The answer is 3. Now let's read the next section.

In this reading exercise, students are encouraged to read closely for the main idea of the passage rather than for the meaning of

particular words or sentences. The gauged recording encourages students to set up a certain pace and keep moving. The simple comprehension questions on the worksheet and the answers on the tape help students to concentrate on the main ideas in the text. This is a cognitive exercise in which students have to grasp the gist of the text through reasonable guessing. It is also an example of extensive reading practice which is especially prepared for laboratory use in that the students sight read while listening to a native speaker read the passage. It involves listening and reading, with some writing at the beginning of the exercise.

Writing

In the laboratory, I have heard many students complain that even though they can manage grammatical exercises well, they still make mistakes when they write compositions. I believe that students need semi-controlled writing practice to bridge the gap between manipulative grammar exercises and free composition. Accordingly, using a format adapted from Allen and Valette (1977: 316), I devised the following letter-writing exercise:

Writing (Exercise A)

W+T (Directions) This is a letter writing exercise. First, write your address and the date in the upper right-hand corner of the worksheet. Second, without stopping the tape, listen to the speaker read the whole passage and try to understand the situations involved in the letter. Next, rewind the tape and start again. This time, stop the tape when you hear a bell ring; that is, at the end of each direction. Then compose sentences by elaborating on the ideas provided in the directions you heard. The first few sentences are done for you, following the first direction given on the tape.

T First, thank Kenji for the letter and the family picture and tell him that you enjoyed them very much. [bell] You liked his sister; compliment her on her beauty. [bell]

Tell him that you are sorry to hear that his father has been sick in the hospital. [bell] You hope that he will feel better soon. [bell]

Tell him how things are going with you in UNO–things such as American school life, American customs, dorm life, and so on. [bell]

Tell him that next week you are going to Pensacola, Florida, to swim with your friends; describe your plans for the trip. [bell] Promise him that you will send him some pictures of your trip. [bell] End your letter with a friendly greeting to Kenji and his family.

W

Your address _____

_____

Date _____

Kenji Ooshima
10 Kasugamachi
Tokyo, Japan

Dear Kenji:

I am very delighted to hear from you, my friend! Thank you for the long letter written in your old friendly way and the family picture taken in front of the blossoming cherry tree. _____

_____

_____

_____

. . . . . .

Sincerely,

(signature) _____

In writing the letter, the students are guided to produce structurally acceptable short paragraphs which are constructed in a simple chronological order, progressing from the past through the present to the future. In addition, in each sentence the students have to make a shift from indirect discourse to direct discourse in writing. Thus, this cognitive exercise involves listening comprehension, transforming indirect to direct discourse, and some limited yet innovative writing. It is certainly one step closer to free composition since it goes beyond the simple dictation type of exercise.

The next exercise (adapted from Gorman 1979:196) is an example of a semi-controlled composition exercise in the sense that students are led to write a passage or passages related to the situation described in the introductory part of the exercise.

Writing (Exercise B)

W+T (Directions) Write down the introductory passage entitled "How Do You Handle Everyday Stress?" as the speaker dictates it to you. First listen to the speaker read the whole passage. Then write down the sentences as he dictates them to you. You may replay the tape until the whole passage is completed.

T Psychologists are now convinced that day-to-day problems, which frequently seem unimportant, are what "take a lot out of you." Moreover, they can even affect the length of your life. Everybody faces day-to-day problems, but some can handle them better than others. (Baudoin 1977:58)

W (Directions) You should continue the passage with examples of how you and/or other people you know handle stress, in comparison and contrast.

W+T *(Sample Paragraph)*

My grandmothers are good examples to illustrate this point. Like any old folks, Grandmas Helen and Martha have their day-to-day problems of living on small social security checks, suffering from a few old-age health problems, and bearing the loneliness after their husbands' deaths. However, they react quite differently to these problems. Pessimistic Grandma Helen mopes about for hours in her musty house, complaining about her financial problems or recurring arthritis, and every time with a deep sigh comes to the conclusion that the situation would have been better if Grandpa had not died. All the relatives try to comfort her, but we soon get so tired of her same old story that we tend to avoid listening to her. Grandma Martha, on the other hand, refuses to be overcome by her everyday problems. She is not too well-off financially either, but her kitchen is always filled with a smell of home-made apple pie and the laughter of visitors. In spite of her troubled leg, she spends at least a few hours a day in the yard, digging weeds and trimming her yellow chrysanthemums. I once asked her if she ever gets as lonesome as Grandma Helen. Looking at my serious face, she chuckled and said that she was too busy doing her church activities to get bothered by it.

In this exercise, the listening and writing tasks are balanced, since the former is a dictation involving a listening comprehension exercise, and the latter is a semi-controlled writing activity. It is a move toward free composition because it allows students to think logically and extend the discussion by bringing in their personal experiences or thoughts. Consequently, this type of paragraph writing practice gradually prepares students to deal with the basic rhetorical devices necessary to write a free composition.

Summary

The outdatedness of laboratory software has been the main cause of the gradual decline in the use of the language laboratory. Observing this problem, I attempted to extend the scope of laboratory software for ESL students, especially at the advanced level. I generated some new laboratory exercises for listening, speaking, reading, and writing, emphasizing a variety of language skills and contextualization based on the needs and interests of our ESL students. The students liked these exercises because they were realistic and interesting, and involved them more in laboratory activities. I believe this is a positive step towards extending the scope of laboratory software.

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Psycholinguistics and Listening Comprehension for the ESL Classroom

John T. Crow

The purpose of this paper is threefold: 1) to develop a theoretical psycholinguistic model for the listening comprehension process, 2) to note some of the problems that non-native speakers have in listening comprehension in terms of this psycholinguistic model, and 3) to demonstrate an exercise that will provide some assistance with problem areas in ESL listening comprehension.

Four Steps of Listening Comprehension

Once the acoustic waves created by a speaker have been translated from phones into phonemes (Foss and Hakes 1978), a four-step process is initiated (Clark and Clark 1977):

Step One: The verbatim content of the utterance is placed in short-term memory. Short-term memory is that mental facility that allows us to retain limited amounts of information for a very short period of time (two to five seconds). For example, when we look up a telephone number, we normally place the digits in short-term memory. As long as we act upon the information immediately, there is no problem. If, however, something should interrupt us, even for a couple of seconds, we find we have "forgotten" the number and must look it up again. Of far greater significance, however, is the fact that short-term memory is finite in terms of available space: we are able to retain only a very limited amount of information in short-term memory at one time—approximately

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seven "bits" of information (Miller 1956). This limitation, as we shall see later, creates a serious problem for non-native listeners.

Step Two: Constituent analysis is performed on the verbatim content of short-term memory. Constituents or thought groups (such as phrases, clauses, etc.) are collapsed into single units of information (i.e., chunked). Thus a clause that contains six words, which is very near the maximum limit of short-term memory, can be chunked so that it occupies only one of the precious slots of the available space, thereby freeing the other slots for additional information. That constituents are psychologically real, and not merely theoretical conveniences, is well supported in psycholinguistic literature (see, for example, Martin 1970, Fodor and Bever 1965, Garrett, Bever, and Fodor 1966, Caplan 1972, and Walker, Gough, and Wall 1968).

Step Three: The propositional content of the constituents is extracted and placed in longer-term memory. The propositional content refers to the ideas or thoughts contained in the language. Again, there is evidence in support of the theory that information is stored in longer-term memory by propositions; that is, by ideas and not by words (Wanner 1974, Franks and Bransford 1972).

Step Four: Short-term memory is purged and the verbatim content is lost. Steps Three and Four can be demonstrated by asking a native speaker to repeat a sentence word for word as soon as you have uttered it. This can be done with relative ease since the content is still stored in short-term memory. However, if you ask the same person to repeat, word for word, a sentence that you uttered a minute or two earlier, he or she will be unable to do so but will be able to give you the gist of what you said.

The above description is linear, thus oversimplifying an extremely complicated process. However, the model is adequate for the classroom teacher, whose main interest is in providing the proper environment for the improvement of the skill of listening.

Non-Native Problems in Listening Comprehension

True listening comprehension breakdowns (that is, failure to comprehend due to causes other than lexical, syntactic, or cultural ignorance) usually result from either 1) an inability to utilize finite short-term memory space efficiently, or 2) an inability to place the verbatim content of an utterance in short-term memory due to dif-

ferences between informal spoken English and its written representation.

Improper Utilization of Short-Term Memory

The ability to chunk material is experiential; that is, it can best be learned through direct experience. Native speakers take full advantage of cues in the language which help them recognize the end of one constituent (thought group) and the beginning of another. They are very proficient at analyzing the myriad details that language contains, sorting out what is important and what is trivial, and utilizing all of this information as they perform constituent analysis. Non-native speakers, on the other hand, often lack the exposure to the target language that is necessary in order to become proficient at recognizing the important (and *only* the important) linguistic cues which help them to conserve short-term memory space by chunking. A failure to recognize cues in the language which signal the beginnings and endings of thought groups (such as *the* = begin a new noun phrase and *therefore* = begin a new clause) can retard the chunking process in non-native speakers, resulting in an overload in short-term memory. A failure to discriminate between important and unimportant information can also result in an overload.

Unlike native speakers, students of a foreign language tend to assign equal importance to every piece of information. For example, native speakers chunk function words with content words in short-term memory, thus devoting very little, if any, finite short-term memory space to their retention and processing as independent items. For the non-native speaker, however, a function word may occupy the same amount of space in short-term memory as a content word. This quickly overloads the facility to retain information.

Non-native listeners also have trouble processing redundancies efficiently. Redundancy may be defined as any aspect of language that is not essential to the transmission of thought. Note, for instance, the following examples of grammatical redundancy:

six horses: The plural morpheme *-s* indicates that there is more than one horse; so does the word *six*.

he walks: The morpheme *-s* here indicates that the verb is third person singular; so does the word *he*.

to me: The form of the pronoun *me* (instead of *I*) indicates

that the pronoun is the object of something; so does its position in the sentence after the preposition *to*.

Languages are redundant because communication rarely, if ever, occurs in an acoustically pure environment. The more channels a message is transmitted over, the less damage if one of them is lost due to the honking of a horn or the sneezing of a classmate. Experience with the target language assists the non-native in discriminating between important information and redundant information. Initially, however, every piece of information is a jewel to be retained, examined, and evaluated. This results in very inefficient utilization of one's finite short-term memory capacity, leading to overload even if the utterance contains absolutely no new vocabulary or grammatical constructions.

Inability to Decode Spoken English

Rapid informal English is altered through elisions, assimilations, and vowel reductions to such an extent that the spoken language often bears little resemblance to its written representation. Look at the following American English dialogue:

Speaker A: D'ja eajet? (Did you eat yet?)
Speaker B: No, d'joo? (No, did you?)
Speaker A: No. Skweet. (No. Let's go eat.)

The content of the above dialogue is basic; however, even an advanced ESL student may fail to comprehend it due to the changes that the language undergoes when spoken informally. These alterations prevent the non-native listener from placing the verbatim content in short-term memory (Step One).

What Can We Do?

As mentioned above, efficient utilization of short-term memory through proper chunking (as well as effective decoding of spoken English) can best be learned through experience. In this way, improving listening comprehension is similar to learning any other skill. Take, for example, learning how to drive a car: When one first begins to learn to drive, all of one's attention must be devoted to the driving process. It is very difficult to carry on a conversation, enjoy the countryside, and so on, until many of the steps involved in driving become internalized. After many hours of experience, however, the act of driving may become so automatic that one can

drive for a considerable amount of time without being consciously aware of any of the processes involved.

Even though learning how to utilize short-term memory properly is experiential, like learning how to drive a car, we, as teachers of ESL, can still make a significant contribution by providing the proper environment and focus conducive to developing good listening habits. Here are some guidelines for designing class activities so as to facilitate the efficient utilization of short-term memory and the effective decoding of natural spoken English:

1. *Never use citation speech in the classroom.* Slow down a little for beginners, but never so much that you alter the natural rhythm and flow of the language. Instead, increase the pauses between major constituents, thereby giving the students more time to go through the listening process.

2. *Never read a passage verbatim as a listening exercise.* Written language is not the same as conversational language in that the information load per word in a tightly-edited, well-written passage is much greater than the information load per word in conversation. Furthermore, unless the person is an accomplished actor or actress, one does not read material in the same manner in which one speaks it. Instead of reading a passage verbatim, outline the content of the passage and, following the outline, relate the passage *in your own words.*

3. *Be careful not to ask detailed questions that require your students to retain a lot of information.* This is a more stringent requirement than is normally placed upon a listener in an actual conversational situation. In the normal listening process, only the gist is retained. Without special training, even native speakers fail miserably when required to remember specific details from utterances heard only one time.

The Directed Listening Comprehension Exercise

The following is an exercise designed 1) to provide an environment that is conducive to more efficient utilization of short-term memory space and 2) to assist the students in their attempts to decipher rapid informal conversation. Prepare a handout with five to ten sentences written in natural conversational language. The handout should be designed as follows:

1. _____
   Did you go to the movies last night?
2. _____
   I am going to do my homework.
3. . . .

Give each student a copy of the handout face down. Instruct your students to cover the front of the paper with any sheet of paper that they have, to turn the handout over, and to slide the coversheet down until the number and the line are exposed.

Then ask the students to write down what you dictate word for word. Dictate the first sentence in a rapid and informal manner. After giving them time to write, repeat the sentence. When they are finished writing, instruct them to slide the coversheet down until the next number and line are exposed. This also exposes the answer to the previous item. They should then compare what they wrote with what is written. Whenever there is an area where the verbatim content was not properly comprehended, they should *circle* where the breakdown occurs. This is very important. There is no need to write in the corrections: copying in the correction makes very little contribution to the listening comprehension process. As soon as most of the students are finished, repeat the procedure with the next sentence. Do not allow the students to ask any questions at this point.

When all of the sentences have been dictated, have the students uncover the sheet and go back to the first sentence. Reread each sentence a couple of times and answer any questions the students may have. If a misunderstanding lends itself to a minimal pair drill, do it immediately. Then go on to your next activity.

There are several points to keep in mind when setting up these exercises:

1. Never introduce new vocabulary or new grammar structures unless this is the main objective of the exercise. The exercise is much more efficientiy used as a listening comprehension exercise only. Sentences should, therefore, be a recombination of previously learned material. You may, if you wish, use the exercise as a review of the previous week's structures, vocabulary, and so on.

2. Keep the sentences fairly short at first, but begin to lengthen them as time goes on. Once the students are familiar with the format of the exercise, you can do ten sentences in five to seven minutes. In an intensive English setting, three to four exercises a week are recommended.

3. Whenever possible, contextualize the sentences in an exercise so that they tell a story.

4. Keep in mind that the objective is to teach the students how to *understand* rapid informal English, not how to speak it.

Some advantages inherent in this exercise are as follows:

1. Students receive immediate knowledge of results.

2. The exercises are individualized: each student can work on his or her unique weaknesses.

3. Students are allowed to work in a non-threatening environment. Impress upon your students that this is *not* a test, but rather an exercise.

4. Students are forced to chunk more effectively as sentence length is increased.

5. Student response is overwhelmingly positive, thereby increasing the effectiveness of the exercise.

6. The exercises provide a good review of previously covered structures and vocabulary.

7. The exercises pinpoint problem areas for teachers as well as students.

8. Teacher time for the exercises is minimal: there is no grading, and the same set of exercises can be used semester after semester.

9. The exercise can be done in the lab and discussed in class.

Conclusion

An understanding of the psycholinguistic aspects of the listening comprehension process assists the teacher in determining how to provide the most effective types of exposure for his or her students. The two greatest problems are an inability to utilize finite short-term memory space efficiently and an inability to decode rapid informal conversational English due to the changes the language undergoes. The directed listening comprehension exercise, if properly executed, provides valuable assistance in both of these areas. The students are able to compare rapid spoken English with its written counterpart so as to begin forming hypotheses concerning the pronunciational changes that are incorporated. Moreover, the format of the exercise forces students to perform consstituent analysis and to chunk material, and thus to utilize more efficiently short-term memory space.

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A Communicative Approach to Teaching English as an International Language

Larry E. Smith

When one speaks of communicative language teaching, one is generally referring to the teaching of a second language rather than a first language. When the second language is English, the classes are usually referred to as ESL (English as a Second Language) or EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classes. In such situations, it is usually assumed that English belongs to its native speakers, that native speakers already have a perfect communicative competence, and that non-native English speakers should work toward a native English speaker communicative competence. It seems to also be assumed that if everyone has a native English speaker competence, there will be no communication difficulties.

The assumptions behind English as an International Language (EIL) are very different from most of these. In EIL, it is assumed that English is the property of its users—native and non-native—and that both native and non-native English speakers need training for international communication. In functional terms, English is an international language when it is used by people of different nations to communicate with one another; therefore, the uses of EIL may range from ungrammatical to highly grammatical, from haltingly nonfluent to fluently articulate, from casually spoken to professionally edited (Smith 1976). ESL and EFL fit into this definition but EIL is larger, more inclusive, than these two. EFL and ESL usually deal with a non-native speaker of one nation communicating with a native speaker of another nation and the emphasis is placed on training the non-native speaker to interact with the native

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speaker. Sometimes in EIL situations the interactors are both native speakers of English but from different countries and therefore different cultures and with different national varieties of English. In all cases, native and non-native speakers must learn about the speech patterns of their interactors in order to communicate more effectively, since each culture has its own ways of speaking and structuring information. With English being used more and more frequently internationally, non-native speakers need training in the use of English not only with native speakers, but also with other non-native speakers who are from other countries. Native English speakers also need training in the use of their own language for international communication with non-native speakers and with other native speakers of different national varieties. Such training is not adequately dealt with in the fields of ESL and EFL.

Communicative Competence

In a communicative approach to teaching English as an International Language, it is assumed that a native English speaker's communicative competence is not necessary for non-native speakers, nor is it sufficient for native English speakers.

When discussing a communicative approach to teaching EIL, it is necessary to say something about the term communicative competence itself. Canale and Swain (1980) have suggested that the minimal components of communicative competence are:

(1) grammatical competence—the knowledge of what is grammatically correct in a language; the mastery of vocabulary and rules of word formation, sentence formation, linguistic semantics, pronunciation, and so forth;

(2) sociolinguistic competence—the knowledge of what is appropriate linguistic behavior in different contexts depending on such factors as the status of participants, purposes of the interaction, and norms or conventions of the interaction; and

(3) strategic competence—the knowledge of ways to communicate intended meanings verbally or nonverbally when successful communication is threatened due to limiting factors in performance or to insufficient competence in one or more of the other components of communicative competence.

Although these three components are not discrete units, they can be mastered with differing degrees of proficiency. For example, a learner may be quite proficient in terms of grammatical competence, being able to achieve high scores on standard language tests, while at the same time remaining relatively unable to use the language with ease or appropriateness in international social interactions. This is in fact the case with most native English speakers using English as an international language. For example, an American businessman will know the grammar of the language well but may not know how to make appropriate refusals or suggestions to a Japanese business colleague. He will probably also not know helpful strategies to communicate meaning when there is a possible breakdown in communication. Most frequently he will repeat himself in a slower and/or louder voice and if that fails, give up. Clearly, native English speaker communicative competence is not necessarily sufficient for successful international communication.

Similarly, so-called "communicative language teaching" may not be sufficient to meet the international needs of non-native speakers of English. Communicative language teaching has become a fashionable phrase to mean almost anything the speaker wishes it to mean. In ESL/EFL classes, it has come to mean the training of non-native speakers in ways to deal with native speakers. They study English grammar, learn sociolinguistic rules and communication strategies for dealing with Americans, the British, or other native speakers, but receive little or no help in dealing with other non-native speakers of English in international contexts. Clearly, knowing how to deal with the British and Americans is necessary for any student of English in today's world, but it is not sufficient. Much more is needed.

The Problem of Pronunciation

Of the three components of communicative competence, the only one which remains almost the same in a communicative approach to teaching English as an International Language is the grammatical component. The grammar of educated English is virtually the same across cultures and native and non-native students of EIL should aim for this educated grammar. The phonology of educated English, however, varies tremendously and native and non-native students of EIL should be made aware of this. Americans sound like Americans in their pronunciation of English, the British sound

British, and Australians sound Australian. This is an accepted fact and no one suggests it should be any other way. However, non-native speakers are often made to feel inadequate if they do not have a pronunciation very similar to native speakers. When studying EIL, an Indian may still sound Indian, a Japanese sound Japanese, and a German sound German and be accepted without prejudice by native or non-native speakers. We should remember that no two speakers of any language have absolutely identical pronunciation and in many cases there can be a great deal of variation from region to region.

In EIL classes, a single model should be chosen for production, but it need not be a native variety of English. In countries where there is a large intranational use of English, the pronunciation model and target may be the educated local form of English. For example, in India, where English is used a great deal intranationally, the educational model for English may be educated Indian English. In countries where there is little intranational use of English, what the students hear on tape in pronunciation classes (the pronunciation model) may be that of a major national variety such as British or American while what the students are expected to produce (the pronunciation target) may be the educated local form of English. For example, in Germany, English is rarely used among Germans intranationally. There, the educational model for pronunciation could be American or British English while the accepted target is good pronunciation, identifiable as educated German English. The pronunciation can be judged "good" if the attention of the listener is not drawn away from what is being said to the way it is said. If students are successful in reaching this target, they will have few problems making themselves understood at international meetings (cf. Smith and Rafiqzad 1979).

For comprehension practice, students should be exposed to different native and non-native varieties of English. Educated English users must become more accustomed to hearing a relatively wide range of pronunciations, without having their attention drawn to pronunciation and away from content. Research indicates that a person speaking any variety of educated English (that is, using the syntax of educated English) although phonologically non-native, can expect to be comprehensible to his listeners if his listeners have had some prior exposure to different varieties of educated English (Smith and Bisazza 1982). Consequently, a good pro-

nunciation of English need not be exactly like that of any particular educated English user.

EIL in the Classroom

The teacher of EIL must recognize that responsibility for effective communication is shared by both the speaker and the listener. In any conversation, it is not the sole responsibility of the speaker to make himself understood. The listener must make an effort to understand. This recognition of dual reponsibility is very important for successful cross-cultural communication.

An effective way to make students aware of this dual responsibility as well as to teach the sociolinguistic and strategic components in EIL is via drama techniques (cf. Smith and Via 1982). There are several drama techniques which are flexible enough for the constraints of time, teacher abilities, and facilities of the classroom. These include exercises in observation, Talk and Listen, and improvisation. Reading and writing exercises can also be used to develop communicative competence.

Observation Exercises

Observation exercises can be used to demonstrate the need for sociolinguistic competence by showing how perceptions of the same picture, word, sentence, or event differ between cultures. In an observation exercise, the teacher might instruct the students to stand up and just walk as they usually do. Rather than concentrating on the way they walk, they should observe the way others walk. Each person has a special way of walking. (Often one can recognize a friend long before seeing his face clearly.) As the students walk, they should be instructed to choose someone to walk with. After about three minutes, they should stop and stand back-to-back with the person they have been walking with. The instructor can then ask each student to describe, without looking, what his or her partner is wearing. The students should be instructed to be as specific as possible. They can then face each other and discuss the accuracy or inaccuracy of each of their descriptions.

This kind of exercise can help students to develop their ability to monitor their own behavior, as well as that of others. By observing patterns and making use of them, students improve their communicative skills.

Talk and Listen

Talk and Listen is a technique that is well-suited to teaching the skills necessary for students to become competent communicators when using English as an International Language. This technique allows the students to focus on particular functions of communication, such as suggesting, inviting, declining, and so forth. The teacher's role is to provide guidance in all three components of communicative competence: grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic.

The following is an example of an exercise from *Talk and Listen* (Via and Smith 1983). Each participant has only his own lines and therefore does not know what his partner is going to say. Furthermore, the dialog may also have certain words deleted which must be filled in by the students.

A's page	B's page
A: Do you like to study British and American idioms?	A:
B:	B: Some of them are interesting but sometimes they're difficult to understand.
A: I wonder how important they are—especially when studying English as an international language.	A:
B:	B: They might be important when talking with a native speaker.
A: But what if I'm talking with a non-native speaker?	A:
B:	B: Then they're not very important.

This technique forces each person to listen to the other and to respond more naturally to what has been said. The students are asked to *say* the lines rather than *read* them and are told never to try to memorize them. They are to read the line silently, then look at their partner and say it. Students are not told to express any specific emotion but are allowed to interpret the lines as they see fit, according to the information given to them concerning the

circumstances of the two speakers. The more explicit information students have concerning the who, what, when, where, and why of the situation, the better they will be at interpreting their lines with an appropriate sociolinguistic context. It is always interesting to see how the same dialog can be interpreted in different ways. Discussing these interpretations is helpful for the students to understand different cultural and social perceptions of words and events and is the key to developing greater sociolinguistic competence.

In real life, fluent speakers of English do not always understand each other and it becomes necessary to ask for clarification. At other times, the speaker realizes he has not expressed himself well and seeks to make some correction. This is strategic competence in operation. In teaching this component in EIL, a student is encouraged to request clarification when he does not understand something his partner has said or done. He is taught how to paraphrase what he has understood and to ask his partner for a paraphrase of what has been said. He is also taught how to give clues that something is unclear. As students practice with these types of Talk and Listen dialogs they need not always say them exactly as they are written. As long as the meaning of the dialog is not changed, they are encouraged to use the language which is most comfortable for them.

Improvisation

For advanced students and native speakers, Talk and Listen leads into the use of improvisations. To improvise is to use information about a given situation, and attempt, without a script, to achieve a given goal. When one of the participants succeeds in achieving his goal, the improvisation is over. In order to succeed, the student should be encouraged to imagine himself in the character's position by asking "If I were this character, how would I behave, or what would I say?" As in Talk and Listen, each person is given only his card which has the given circumstances and the goal he is to achieve. Also, questions are provided which may help him prepare for the encounter. An example:

A receives this statement:

You are a Japanese named YAMADA Harumi (Yamada–family name, Harumi–given name) and are about to have the third in a series of business meetings with an American. These meetings, which have taken place in your office in Japan, have been pleasant

and productive; however, at the end of the second meeting the American whose name is Lee Baxter began to call you by your given name. This made you feel uncomfortable since Japanese rarely use their given names with others after they become adults.

GOAL: At your meeting today express (indirectly) your dissatisfaction in being called by your given name.

Preparation: (Answer these questions as if you were Mr. Yamada)

1. Does anyone call you by your given name? If so, who? (Mother, spouse? old school friend?)
2. Do you think that at some future time you will feel comfortable working with this American on a given name basis?
3. Do you presently have any American colleagues you refer to by given name?
4. Can you think of a specific reason why you feel uncomfortable having an American business colleague call you by your given name? Why did it bother you? (Maybe you feel like a child? Too intimate? Lack of respect?)

B receives this statement:

You are an American named Lee BAXTER. You have had two very good meetings in Japan with a Japanese colleague named Harumi YAMADA. You feel that this is the beginning of a good working relationship. The Japanese is still calling you by your title (Mr., Miss, Dr.) and your last name, although you began to call him by his given name toward the end of your last meeting.

GOAL: At today's session suggest that the Japanese call you by your given name.

Preparation: (Answer these questions as if you were Mr. Baxter)

1. Is this your first trip to Japan?
2. Do you have any Japanese-American friends that you call by first name?
3. Why do you want to be called by your given name?

(Via and Smith 1983:59-60)

After the improvisation, both students can discuss the following questions together: Did you achieve your goal? Are both A and B satisfied? How would you handle the problem in your culture when dealing with either the Japanese or the American?

It should always be remembered that the student himself is at the center of the character and that the magic "if" is the secret of success. One is asked to resolve the problem as he would solve it. The improvisation should be discussed after it is finished and then can be repeated. Improvisations provide students with opportunities to see their level of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence as well as to experience some of

the different ways that information and argument can be structured. EIL students must be consciously aware of their own cultural conventions for such things as turn-taking and interrupting, as well as how they express thanks, apologies, and advice. They must also realize that their way is no better or worse than any other and that they should expect differences rather than assume similarities in these things when interacting in international settings.

Reading Exercises for EIL

Students of EIL should understand that the development of communicative competence is not limited to activities involving speaking and listening, but can also be done through reading and writing. One of the best sources of reading material for EIL classes is literature from different native and non-native English-speaking cultures which has been written in English or translated into English (cf. Kachru 1980). This literature (short story, play, poem, or selection from a novel) should be at a level (in terms of lexis, syntax, and content) appropriate for the students and should deal with a variety of sociolinguistic contexts that students find interesting. It will be helpful for students to learn how different meanings may be perceived by people reading the same material. It should soon become clear that there is no one absolute meaning and that it is frequently not possible to know the author's exact intent. This does not prevent students from understanding the literature but it should make them more cautious in forming their conclusions. This literature can also be used for intensive and extensive reading, to increase reading speed, and to improve skimming and scanning abilities in order to quickly locate details or determine the general idea of the passage. It should increase the students' knowledge and awareness of other cultures, which is extremely important in EIL.

Writing Exercises

The information about sociolinguistic contexts and communication strategies gained from drama techniques as well as from reading in native and non-native English literature is also very helpful in the teaching of writing. It is clear that different cultures have different rhetorical patterns in expository writing (Kaplan 1966, Clyne 1981, Easton 1982). EIL students must of course first be aware of their own cultural conventions for expository writing and then learn something about other rhetorical styles. It is impor-

tant to begin the teaching of writing as soon as students need it (see Weiner and Smith 1980). It is not necessary to wait until the reading skills are firmly established. Reading and writing should reinforce each other. Writing about experience is a good way to begin, since such writing requires no information about subject matter which might go beyond the students' knowledge. For example, a short daily account of some incident experienced by the student or a personal comment on an interesting event can provide a steady source of material for assessment of writing skills. How this information and meaning are conveyed reveals a great deal about the students' sociolinguistic and strategic competence.

An effective writing assignment for intermediate and advanced students is an English language autobiography. It provides the teacher with relevant information about the student's English language development: when, where and how he first studied English. It can also indicate any difficulties he encountered in content areas because of language problems, such as spelling errors, difficulties with mathematical language, or organizational problems in compositions. Analyzing these compositions will help the students to learn how they themselves structure information. Asking them to make evaluative judgements on their work will also help them to be aware of their grammatical competence as well as what sociolinguistic conventions they have been conditioned to follow in judging what is cohesive and coherent.

Cartoons from different cultures also provide excellent subject matter for EIL writing practice. These pictorial comments have great value in training for sociolinguistic and strategic competence. It is easy for EIL students to see that any cartoon can be interpreted in many different ways and that drawing cartoons is a powerful nonverbal communication device. Students can be asked to write two paragraphs about a cartoon, the first one a simple description of what they see and the second an interpretation of it. It is helpful for students to compare their descriptions and interpretations. The descriptions should be very similar but the interpretations may be vastly different. If the class is culturally heterogeneous, the differences will be even greater.

It should be made clear that perceptions and rhetorical styles differ among cultures. When writing for a reader who uses a different variety of English, a student of EIL will want to make any necessary modifications of his own rhetorical style which might be a barrier to effective communication.

Conclusion

In order to develop a communicative approach to teaching EIL, it is essential to keep three facts in mind:

First, it is very important that the teacher accept each student as he is and encourage him to try and express himself–his individuality and his culture–in and through the language. Rather than inhibiting self-expression in the beginning stages of language teaching by insisting on conformity, teachers should foster the blossoming of the individual from the very beginning. Although everyone has the same basic emotions, when they may be expressed and the way of expressing them varies greatly depending upon the sociolinguistic rules of the culture involved. English already represents many cultures and it can be used by anyone to express a personal position or a cultural heritage. There is no need to become more western in order to use English well, and studying EIL does not change one's belief system or values. If English is used as a cloak to cover one's identity, it will only look ill-fitting.

Secondly, in EIL situations there is a greater range of potential interactors than in ESL/EFL. In traditional EFL situations, one interactor is always a native speaker and in ESL situations one can predict with a high degree of accuracy that one interactor will be a native speaker or that both interactors will be non-native speakers of the same nationality. In EIL classes, students must be given training to develop sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence with a full range of potential interactors: a native speaker of one national variety interacting with another native speaker of a different national variety, a non-native speaker interacting internationally with a native speaker, and a non-native speaker of one nation interacting with another non-native speaker of a different nation. It is therefore important to provide opportunities for listening to different varieties of educated English while at the same time maintaining a single educated variety as the target for production.

Finally, the goal of teaching EIL is not an attempt to learn about the communication patterns of all the cultures in the world nor is it an attempt to prevent all communication problems. Attempting to attain either of these goals is impractical if not impossible. The objectives of EIL classes are to make students aware of the international role of English in the world and to help them deal with diversity, as well as to learn how to recognize and cope

with misunderstandings. No matter how many different cultures are studied or how much in-depth work is done on one culture, students need to realize that it is the nature of communication that there will always be misunderstandings. When these misunderstandings occur, students should not feel they are failures. Rather, their focus should be on how to manage the communication problems that inevitably occur when using English as an International Language.

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Enryo-Sasshi Communication: A Key to Understanding Japanese Interpersonal Relations

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The recent remarkable progress in communication and transportation has made it possible for us to come in daily contact with peoples from many different cultures. This increased contact between nations and cultures, however, does not necessarily guarantee increased understanding. In fact, it seems to be causing unexpected conflict and friction among us. Seen from this perspective, it is fortunate that politicians, businesspersons, scholars, students, tourists, and others engaged in intercultural communication are beginning to be more aware of the importance of coexistence and interdependence in the contemporary world.

These days we can witness a wide exchange of information, culture, and people between the United States and Japan. And yet, the stereotyped image of the Japanese as a silent and inscrutable people continues to be pervasive in American society today. With this intercultural problem in mind, this article has three objectives: (1) to investigate the truthfulness of the stereotyped image of the silent Japanese, (2) to discuss the historical and socio-cultural backgrounds of Japanese interpersonal communication, and (3) to present and clarify a model of *enryo-sasshi* communication as one of the basic principles underlying Japanese interpersonal relations.

The Value of Silence and Ambiguity in Japanese Society

The Japanese have traditionally placed a high value on silence, believing that a person of few words is thoughtful, trustworthy, and respectable. The late Yasunari Kawabata, a Nobel Literature

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Prize winner, was interviewed about his impression of the Prize at a press conference in Stockholm in 1968. He answered only, "Well, that's a difficult question," and he kept silent, looking into the air. Many Japanese who saw this scene on television were deeply moved by the great novelist's thoughtfulness. To the Japanese, he appeared to be a great, respectable man of modesty and politeness. This relatively low value placed on verbalization in Japanese society is a striking contrast to the high value placed on rhetoric, eloquence, and self-assertion in Western cultures. The Japanese generally tend to speak only modestly and sparingly, depending on the other person's sensitivity, or sharp guess-work, called *sasshi*.

Quantitative evidence supports the above observation. In a survey done by the author and Donald Klopf, the communication activities of Japanese and American adults were compared (Ishii and Klopf 1976). The survey found that the Japanese spent considerably less time each day on verbal communication than the Americans, particularly the amount of time spent on conversation. In another survey of Tokyo office workers, researcher Hiroyoshi Ishikawa found that silence is a highly desirable and sought-after human quality, valued much more than eloquence (Ishikawa 1970).

The low value that the Japanese place on verbalization may frequently puzzle and frustrate people from other, more verbal cultures, causing a variety of misunderstandings in intercultural situations. Americans, for example, whose culture is much more language-oriented than the Japanese culture, subconsciously attempt to fill pauses and silences with words and other sounds when speaking. In the same situation, the Japanese, who feel comfortable with long wordless periods of time, tend to think that Americans are too noisy and should learn how to keep politely silent. In support of this attitude toward verbal communication in Japanese society, Masao Kunihiro, a Japanese linguist, concisely observes, "To the Japanese, language is *a* means of communication, whereas to the people of many other cultures it is *the* means of communication (1976:270).

Norinaga Motoori, who analyzed the traditional spirit of the Japanese in the eighteenth century, was well aware of this cross-cultural contrast in verbal communication:

> In ancient times in our land, even the "Way" was not talked about at all, and we had only ways directly leading to things themselves, while in foreign countries it is the custom to entertain and to talk about many different doctrines, and about principles of things, this "Way" or that "Way." (cited in Nakamura 1981:189)

Along with silence, ambiguity and vagueness based on the Japanese psychology of avoiding direct and clear-cut expressions play an important part in Japanese society. The Japanese people have long had the psychological tendency to choose what is called a "gray" channel rather than the two extremes of black and white. The ethnically homogeneous society of Japan has made it possible for its people to understand each other by means of slight, rather than clear and exaggerated, differences in the choice of words, intonation, rhythm, and nonverbal behavior. Many Americans and Europeans lament that they become confused and frustrated with Japanese expressions, both verbal and nonverbal. It is often said that before they start negotiating with Japanese, many American and European businesspersons are given such advice as "Never take a smile for yes, and never take yes for an answer."

These days, scholars and students in linguistics, communication, anthropology, and psychology realize that the Japanese people's vague expressions and their subsequent sensitivity to hidden meanings are a reflection of harmony (*wa*) in Japanese society. The Japanese are much more reluctant to express their ideas and feelings clearly than Americans or Europeans, especially in a formal public situation with strangers, because they subconsciously fear that by doing so they might damage the whole atmosphere of interpersonal harmony in the situation. This reluctance to communicate actively stems from the Japanese consideration for others in the group, particularly for those of a higher status, and from their strong need to maintain harmony by avoiding unnecessary confrontations that may be caused carelessly.

There have been many academic articles published which explain the possible impact of the vertical structure of Japanese society on its people's communication. People in a society such as Japan's are expected by the general public to express themselves modestly and politely, generally in ritual forms, so that they may not damage their superiors' pride and prestige. In Japanese society, as Japanese sociologist Chie Nakane emphasizes, "the acquisition of these extremely delicate ways of conducting personal relations

requires considerable social training, though most Japanese achieve them through their social life from childhood onwards" (1970:124). Thus the vagueness or ambiguity which may confuse and frustrate people from verbal cultures but functions smoothly in Japanese society can be said to characterize Japanese interpersonal communication.

According to Nakane, who specializes in human relations in the vertical society of Japan, the average Japanese wants to be a member of a limited number of groups and shows great loyalty to them. Deep involvement in interpersonal relations in the groups of vertical structure must be allied to "the development of extremely sensitive manners, phraseology (virtually incapable of translation), facial expressions and postures of the Japanese" (1970:123). In such close-knit groups, members unintentionally tend to couch themselves in silence and ambiguous expressions, avoiding possible confrontations. Mutually complementary relations which emphasize differences in age, sex, education, and ranking, apparently assist to make the Japanese keenly conscious of superior/subordinate relations in daily communication. Because of this interpersonal consciousness, the Japanese find it extremely difficult to initiate and maintain communication actively with strangers and other "outgroup" people whose backgrounds are unknown.

The Historical and Socio-Cultural Background of *Enryo-Sasshi* Communication

In addition to the influence of hierarchical human relationships, some references to the historical and socio-cultural background of *enryo-sasshi* are necessary. They are: (1) the influences on *enryo-sasshi* interaction by Japanese society's ethnic homogeneity, (2) the autonomous rice-growing village life style, (3) belief in *kotodama* (language spirit), (4) Zen philosophy, and (5) Confucianism.

Japanese society's ethnic homogeneity as a people living on four major islands isolated from the Asian continent is one of the most widely accepted causes of Japanese reluctance to verbalization. It seems that there is no historical evidence that immigrants in large waves moved into Japan, although small numbers arrived and were assimilated into the majority. Although some critics stress that the Japanese culture is a mixed culture, anthropologist Ishida argues that "compared to Europeans the Japanese provide a rare case, not to be found elsewhere, of a people maintaining an astonishing

homogeneity from ancient times, even while assimilating such alien elements, and remaining quite complacent in the process" (Ishida 1974:113). In such an endogamous culture, which emphasizes interpersonal harmony, or *wa*, people depend on intuitive, emotional communication commonly recognized among family or other "in-group" members, rather than on elaborate explanations and discussions. Their primary purpose of communication is to maintain interpersonal *wa* by avoiding direct confrontations. Consequently, dialectic debate based on thesis-antithesis-synthesis philosophy has never developed in Japanese society. In such a homogeneous and crowded state as Japan, straight and direct exchanges of information are avoided because people fear the adverse effects of such behavior on others (Iritani 1971:96).

Another characteristic of Japanese culture is that it has been based on small-scale, self-sufficient, rice-growing villages. In the rice-growing village, the value of common blood relations was strongly supported by the extended endogamous family system of one *honke* (head clan) and its many *bunke* (divided branch families). This extended but close-knit kinship system on the basis of an intensive agriculture of rice-growing has developed into a high-context culture which appreciates *enryo-sasshi* communication.

Roy Miller, from his historical research of Japanese communication, concludes that the thought of *kotodama* (language spirit) is one of the most important and unique clues to the general low value placed on verbal interaction in Japanese society (Miller 1977). Many traditional Japanese proverbs which refer to the disadvantages of speech and talking may be traced back to the common belief in *kotodama*, held in the eighth century when the classical tales *Kojiki*, *Nihon-shoki*, and *Manyo-shu* were compiled. The outspoken and optimistic ancient Japanese came to believe that spoken words possessed spirits and that careless utterance of such ominous words would bring misfortune. It is possible that the fear of such magical power of language, internalized in Japanese culture, has established the common belief that silence is a virtue and speech is a vice.

No one would deny that Zen Buddhism emphasizes silence and intuitive communication. In Zen teaching, a large amount of the essence is left unsaid, and the disciple or apprentice monk is to enlighten himself through silent speech and spoken silence. Zen philosopher Suzuki explains the meaning of silence in Zen, saying,

"it [silence] does not stand against the 'word,' it is the word itself, it is the 'thunderous silence' . . . . The Eastern silence resembles the eye of a hurricane; it is the center of the raging storm and without it no motion is possible (Fromm, Suzuki, De Martino 1960:65). Further, anthropologist Befu observes: "Suppression of verbalism, indirection, and emphasis on that which is hidden and can only be intuited are well exemplified in Zen Buddhism, which virtually denies to language the role of communication of information and logical reasoning" (Befu 1971:176). Unquestionably, the value of Zen silence represented by *ishin-denshin* (mind-to-mind intuitive communication) has long influenced Japanese communication behaviors, as is evidenced by traditional aesthetic and martial arts today.

During the Tokugawa period (1600-1868 A.D.) Japan was ruled by centralized authorities in isolation from the rest of the world, and this further developed the nation's ethnic homogeneity. Confucianism was introduced to Japan following Buddhism, but did not have much influence until the Tokugawa period. During the two and a half centuries of this period, Confucianism developed as a political and social philosophy rather than an independent religion. Rulers of the Tokugawa government cleverly adopted Confucian philosophy in educating children and governing citizens. In this way, Confucianism assisted the further development of Japanese social stratification and hierarchical human relations, especially among the *samurai*. Confucian philosophy has continued to make *enryo-sasshi* communication solid and widespread in contemporary Japanese society, even though its influences may not be distinctly recognized.

The Process of *Enryo-Sasshi* Communication

How the Japanese communicate interpersonally in the silence/vagueness-oriented culture is a source of curiosity for many non-Japanese. Edward Hall distinguishes between high-context communication and low-context communication. High-context communication is communication in which most of the information is either in the physical context or internalized into the person, and little is in the coded, explicit part of the message. High-context interaction is more economical and efficient than low-context interaction (Hall 1976:85-103). Apparently, Japanese culture is a culture of high-context communication which does not highly value eloquence and self-assertion.

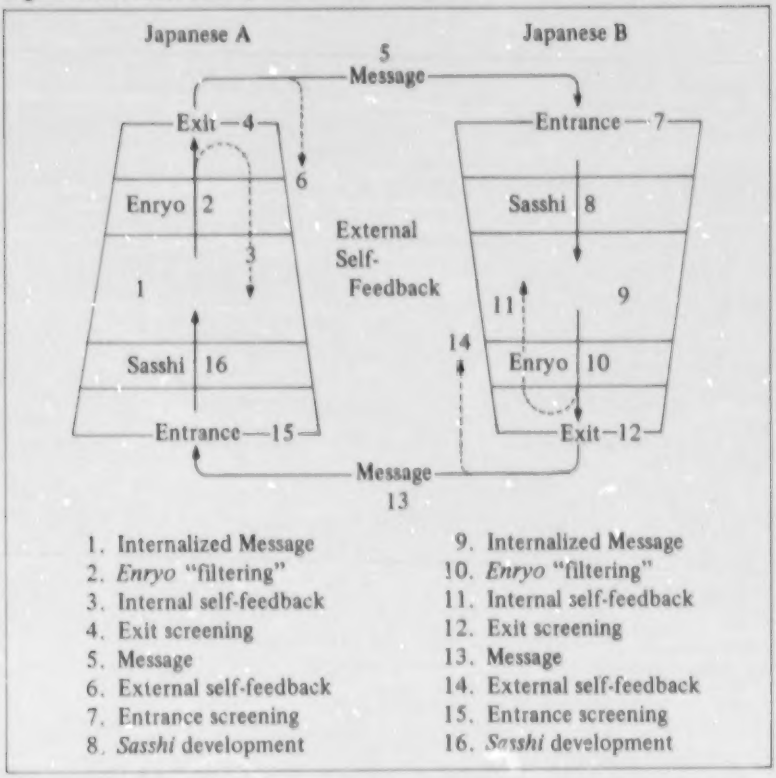
In Japanese culture, people tend to be dependent on each other, forming cohesive groups. They are not trained at home or at school to participate actively in various oral communication activities. In Japanese society, a person who is good at mind-reading and perceiving intuitively another person's thoughts and feelings is highly appreciated for having what is called *sasshi* competence (Kobayashi 1980:217). Japanese-style communication, unclear and frustrating as it may seem to people from low-context cultures, is neither vague nor confusing in the high-context culture of *sasshi*.

The message sender in a high-context culture situation does not value self-assertion, nor does he or she actually need to make special efforts to participate actively in verbal communication. The communicator unconsciously "softens" his or her thoughts and feelings, simplifies explanations rather than elaborates on them, and expects the other person to sense what is left unsaid as well as to understand what is said.

The author's *enryo-sasshi* communication model was one of the first attempts to analyze the process of Japanese person-to-person communication and explain its major characteristics (Ishii 1975: 163–180). Fromm, in discussing Zen Buddhism and psychoanalysis, argues that every society has its own system of categories which determines forms of awareness and that this system works like a "socially conditioned filter" through which experience enters awareness (Fromm, et al. 1960:99). While Fromm's major focus is on the psychological filter for information and stimuli that come in from the outside, holding that "it [the social filter] permits certain experiences to be filtered through, while others are stopped from entering awareness" (Fromm, et al. 1960:99), the filter also functions in the same manner when a person sends out messages. In a related argument, it can be safely said that the Japanese communicator's "exit," through which messages are sent out under the impact of his or her *enryo* (reserve or modesty), is smaller and his or her "entrance" to receive messages with *sasshi* is larger than those in low-context cultures, respectively.

Figure 1 may serve to clarify the interaction process on a dyadic basis. The Japanese have traditionally placed high value on the sense of *enryo*, the teaching of how to control ideas and feelings in interpersonal relations. The open and exaggerated expressions of ideas and feelings, verbal or nonverbal, are usually considered degraded and senseless. Japanese A in Figure 1, who internally stores

Figure 1: A Model of *Enryo-Sasshi* Communication



ideas, feelings, and experiences (stage 1), quickly examines them through the psychological filter of *enryo* according to the cultural norms and the situation in question (stage 2).

Ideas and feelings that might threaten to hurt the other person (Japanese B) and to damage the atmosphere of *wa* are carefully fed back for reexamination in a process known as internal self-feedback (stage 3). Those that are judged to be safe and perhaps vague are allowed to proceed to the exit through which messages are sent out to Japanese B (stage 4). This exit is really another filter constructed to meet the sender's physical, physiological, and psychological conditions. Only the information that has passed these screening filters is to be sent out verbally and/or nonverbally as a message (stage 5). Still, parts of the message sent out, if judged again by the sender (Japanese A) to be incorrect and inappropriate,

are sent back for correction and modification. This is the function of external self-feedback (stage 6). All this process of careful screening in consideration of the other person and the situational atmosphere is *enryo*, which makes Japanese behavior appear quiet, awkward, and passive in communicating with a superior, a stranger, or a foreigner.

The message receiver (Japanese B), to make the interaction possible, is expected to possess good sensitivity and receive the message with his or her entrance wide open (stage 7). Even though parts of the message are unavoidably filtered out or distorted in this stage because of the receiver's physical, physiological, and psychological limitations, the limited and unclear information must be "developed," referring to the receiver's guessing ability called *sasshi* (stage 8). Japanese B's sending mechanism functions on the general basis of *enryo* (stages 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14), as Japanese A's sending process does. Japanese A must use, as Japanese B does, his or her sense of *sasshi* in receiving and understanding the message sent from Japanese B (stages 15 and 16). This whole circular process of sending and receiving messages is Japanese *enryo-sasshi* communication, which may serve as a key to understanding Japanese interpersonal relations.

Conclusion

In the present age of increased communication and travel across national/cultural boundaries, mutual understanding from intercultural perspectives is of vital importance. This article has attempted to explore and explain Japanese interpersonal relations on the assumption that *enryo-sasshi* communication is one of the keys to understanding them. *Enryo-sasshi* communication, characterized by the message sender's silence and ambiguity and the receiver's sensitivity, functions smoothly in Japanese society, even though it may function badly in intercultural situations. It also suits the Japanese in harmony-oriented interpersonal communication because of their ethnically homogeneous and vertical society.

To understand the characteristics of a national group's communication, some knowledge of the group's historical and sociocultural background is essential. *Enryo-sasshi* communication has undeniably come to be established under the influences of various environmental, political, economic, social, and cultural conditions

in Japan, especially hierarchical human relations, ethnic homogeneity, agricultural lifestyle based on self-sufficient rice-growing villages, the ancient Japanese belief in *kotodama*, Zen philosophy, and Confucianism.

Truly, Japanese society is changing speedily, from rurai to urban and from agricultural to technological, under the global impact of industrialization and westernization. However, the fundamental values in Japanese culture on which *enryo-sasshi* communication functions will remain unchanged. It is hoped that this study, together with more empirical research in the future, will further contribute to a better understanding of Japanese interpersonal relations and intercultural communication.

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Bright Ideas

Overcoming the Pollyanna Syndrome

Louise Damen

Pollyanna, the main character in a 1913 American novel of the same name, has entered the lexicon of American English as the epitome of the irrepressible optimist–and a crashing bore. While positive attitudes in the face of adversity may be desirable, foolish optimism is not only tiresome but often constitutes a mask hiding real feelings. Indeed, blind and ill-founded views from inside the optimist's silver-lined cloud reflect neither the real world nor the way we speak and react to people, places, and events.

Thus, as language teachers, we need to introduce our students to the evaluative and affective dimensions of their new language, if we are not to doom them to become latter-day Pollyannas, unable to mine the rich lode of covert cultural meanings shared by native speakers. For example, native speakers of American English are well aware that there is a difference between being termed *pleasingly plump* and *fat*, between *slender* and *skinny*, and between an *older person* and an *old person*. Our students seldom are so knowledgeable. Failure to teach this important aspect of language consigns our students to a unidimensional world of dictionary definitions in which one word appears as appropriate as another and in which cultural messages may be garbled, totally misunderstood, or ignored.

Not only do we as language teachers not share these cultural euphemisms, evasions, and evaluations with our students but we also tend to limit our vocabulary instruction to terms carrying positive, and often vapid, evaluations, such as *good*, *happy*, *nice*, *interesting*, *pleasant*, and *kind*. These choices are apparently based upon the expectation that a little knowledge could lead to a punch in the nose. In this Pollyanna mode, pejorative terms, if taught at

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all, are often introduced haphazardly and in the informal register. Thus, we may teach *far out* as a synonym of *good*, and *creep* for an unpleasant person, but we may fail to explain the hallucinogenic roots of *far out* and the attendant current interpretation of the type of "good" under discussion. Again, in defining a "creep" as one type of unpleasant person, we should also explain that a person may be considered unpleasant for a variety of culturally defined reasons, including being too inquisitive, too aggressive, too pliant, or even too fat.

Thus, if our vocabulary instruction is to meet the needs of our students in order to help them to communicate effectively in the real world, we must help them explore the ranges of cultural meaning and evaluation, both positive and negative, and move out of the artificial world of dictionary definitions, meaningless pleasantness and blind optimism.

In an effort to avoid graduating classes of modern Pollyannas, a series of "culturally loaded" lessons was planned for an advanced reading and composition class. The lesson content and the subsequent writing assignments were organized around a list of terms commonly associated with the physical description of human beings (see Figure 1).

The objectives of the unit were to (1) present, explain, and encourage students to use a wide range of terms for physical description which reflect positive, negative, or ambiguous evaluations, (2) encourage students to understand cultural meanings of vocabulary words and to become more sensitive to the implications of word choice, and (3) practice the use of such terms and others which were discovered in the learning process in written and spoken assignments.

The presentation of the selected terms constituted the first step in the attack on the Pollyanna syndrome. A list of these terms was compiled with indications of how they might be evaluated. This list was then presented to the students in chart form. Figure 1 is a partial list of the items, which were introduced in sets of matched descriptive items because they referred to the same feature but carried different affective loads. For example, words used to describe one's weight may range from *skinny* or *scrawny* at the negative end of the emotional scale to *slender*, *slim*, or *thin* at the positive end.

Figure 1: Describing People

Descriptive Category	Positive	Negative	Neutral
Height	tall short (female)	gigantic midget squat small (male)	feet/inches average
Weight	slender slim thin plump chubby	skinny scrawny flabby	pounds
Age	child childlike youth young youthful mature elderly	childish old senior citizen	years kid
Eyes	bright penetrating intense soulful	red-eyed cross-eyed bleary-eyed squint-eyed	color blue hazel brown green
Nose	snub turned-up (female) aquiline straight	bulbous hooked	
Complexion	fair dark olive rosy	swarthy pasty sickly	

The introduction and the explanation of the terms were accompanied by examples of usage; demonstrations of facial expressions, body build, or voice qualities were met with enthusiasm and delight. If the teacher is gifted with a measure of dramatic ability, the effect can be most gratifying. In all cases, the presentation was focused upon the ranges and intensity of evaluation.

The selection of terms to be presented was somewhat arbitrary, but generally reflected high frequency of use and socially acceptable variations. Certain words, such as *bulbous*, were included for ease of demonstration; others, such as those relating to age and body weight, opened the way to discuss current cultural patterns and ideals.

The affective weight assigned a given term is the subjective evaluation of the teacher and might be questioned, of course. Indeed, students were encouraged to discuss the terms with their American friends. Students quickly discovered the importance of intonational patterns and found that the precise meaning or even use of a word is often dependent on the age of the speaker. This provided the basis for further cultural exploration. Indeed, one student, a slender young girl, reported that, after she had learned the new terms, one of her American acquaintances called her "skinny." When asked just what had been said, she reported, "Well, he said I was a skinny little thing, but that I was nice." Such experiences are very frequent and can be used to illustrate the fact that while evaluative terms reflect shared cultural meanings, they are context sensitive. Furthermore, "reading" the intent of the speaker or writer is as important as understanding the spoken or written words.

Other categories presented but not included in Figure 1 concerned facial features, voice qualities, and overall appearance. In this last category, *intelligent*, *commanding*, *scholarly*, *impressive*, and *well-groomed* were positive values while *stupid*, *nondescript*, *moronic*, *unimpressive*, and *sloppy* were opposing values. Students were shown that for many positive terms there were accompanying negative or ambiguous terms. They were also shown the importance of the interplay of social and physical characteristics. A small, delicate man is somewhat less favorably regarded in modern American society than a small, delicate woman, but a long-legged American beauty is even more favorably received.

An unexpected cultural bonus was provided by the students themselves as they shared their own cultural evaluative terms. Thus, we learned that being *cross-eyed*, *cock-eyed*, or just plain *fat* were not universally negative features. We found out about *radish* legs in Japan and the racial overtones of *kinky* hair in the United States.

Discussion of the various lexical items and their values was followed by an assignment which was entitled "Police Report."

The directions were as follows:

> A friend of yours has disappeared and you have been requested to write a report to the police to help them find your friend. This report should tell the police when and under what circumstances your friend disappeared, what your friend looks like, and provide any explanation you can offer for this disappearance. It may be that your friend has amnesia, or, perhaps, has been involved in some questionable activity. Please help the police and your friend by giving as much information as possible. Of course, the police will insist upon having a report which is grammatically correct and very clear.

The student response was very positive, although the "friends" who had disappeared were uniformly fairly "negative" types, except for those young men who had just misplaced the "most beautiful girl in the world."

Additional assignments which featured vocabulary items with contrasting positive and negative terms were received with enthusiasm. A test given several weeks after the introduction of the vocabulary in Figure 1 showed a commendable rate of retention. A follow-up essay assignment which called for describing a picture also indicated increased command of the range of evaluative terms which a native speaker might use. Both students and teachers felt relieved to be rid of the most severe symptoms of the Pollyanna syndrome and happy to explore the exciting world of cultural meaning. In doing this we were able to look at "positive" and "negative" in terms of one culture and at the same time recognize the variant cultural patterns of the students. Certainly, everyone agreed that it was more fun than memorizing lists of words or trying to find contextual clues without having been given the key to the cultural mysteries.

Ninety Letters to Thailand: Writing for Communication

Emiko Kitagawa

Teaching English in a senior high school for four years, I had always been dissatisfied with the way I, as well as other teachers, taught English composition. An English composition class in the Japanese high school means a lot of translation from Japanese into English. Although we need to learn a lot of sentence patterns and common expressions in English in order to be able to communicate well in it, it seemed to me that translation work was neither the only nor the best way to have the students gain mastery of writing in English. Reports on traffic accidents in a faraway town, or the upheaval of the price of commodities last month, and so on, rarely interested my students, and therefore vocabulary and sentence patterns failed to stay with them. In addition, the gap between Japanese and English in terms of word order, appearance and disappearance of subjects, and other subtleties unique to each language is so great that the struggle to translate a concept into English left the students confused instead of helping them to learn to write.

I came to the conclusion that encouraging students to write to communicate was more important than having them translate. This conclusion was reinforced by a report presented by a junior high school teacher at the JALT annual conference in 1982, which started me thinking about writing for communication. It seemed to me that writing letters would be a more desirable training in the composition class. This American English teacher spoke about one of his techniques using interviews for his classroom. He was planning to go to Hawaii to participate in the TESOL convention during that school year, and he told his students to think of a person of a certain age, occupation, and so on, whom he could possibly interview in Honolulu. He also had them think of several questions they would like him to ask if he were able to find and interview such a person in Hawaii. In Honolulu he walked all over to interview those people students wanted him to interview. He taped the interviews and took pictures of the people. When he came back, he used the tapes and

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pictures in various ways. The tapes were used for listening comprehension (letting students guess who was whose person, for example), for dictation, and so on. The pictures provided the basis for games, role plays, and other classroom activities. Teachers can use such materials in whatever ways they want, but his point was that the students' experience communicating in English with ordinary people and obtaining responses to what they had asked made the lessons more rewarding. Some students started feeling interest in studying English for the first time, so greatly did the real experience communicating with people overseas in English motivate them.

Having learned valuable lessons from this experience, I decided to try to let my students write letters for real communication as part of their schoolwork. Since I had a friend teaching in a private high school as a volunteer teacher in Thailand, it was easy to arrange an exchange between her students and mine. Setting up the project from my side, however, took a lot of work.

Preparing Students to Write for Communication

Letter writing in the target language is not in itself a novelty in a foreign language classroom. The tendency, however, is for the teacher to say to the students all of a sudden after a lot of translation work, "Well, let's write letters today. It's good practice for you." Frequently those letters are not really meant to bring a response. Letter writing such as this is not fun but scary, and when students don't get responses the experience becomes discouraging, too.

In order to make a letter-writing experience enjoyable and within students' ability, I believe we have to shift very gradually from translation, which the students are so used to, to real writing. I myself did not throw away the textbook. At the time these letters were written (1982) we used *Creative Writing Course* (Daiichi Gakushusha) for the juniors in our high school. I believed that my students hadn't mastered basic sentence patterns yet and it was good to use the textbook to present the essentials to them systematically.

About once every six lessons, however, I inserted a special writing assignment, which was the first shift from translating to writing. The first assignment I gave was a fill-in-the-blank type of exercise. I chose that kind because it's easier than writing on an assigned topic (see Table A).

Table A: Lesson Plan for Letter-Writing Assignment

Handout Number	Content of the exercises	Writing assignment
1	Subject-Verb, Subject-Verb-Complement	A
2	Subject-Verb-Object	
3	Subject-Verb-Object-Object	1. _____ made me _____,
4	Subject-Verb-Object-Complement	because_____.
5	"	2. I heard _____ _____
6	"	one night.
7	Participles	B
8	Infinitives	I have many_____to . . .
9	Relative Pronoun	C
10	Relative Adverb	The Closest Person to You in Your Family
11	Infinitives	D
12	Infinitives	A Person You Respect
		E
		The first letter to Thailand [letters brought back and read]
13	Adverbial Clauses	F
14	Adverbial Clauses	What you want to try next
15	Present Perfect Tense	
16	"	G
17	Past Perfect Tense	The second letter to Thailand
18	Comparatives	
19	Superlatives	
20	Subjunctives	
21	"	

The next assignment followed the same pattern, and both assignments were related to what had previously been learned. The students were assigned to use the target sentence patterns which had been taught using the textbook. Even though this type of exercise did not allow them complete freedom, they wrote a variety of things within the given framework. Here are some examples:

> I have many sensory organs to watch, hear and talk. I am lucky to have all these organs. But my mother said to me, "If you did not

have your mouth, I would be happier than now, because your mouth is moving twice as much as mine."

By Nishida

I have many maps to use when I travel by bicycle. I usually mark the place where I went in the map. Therefore, the map is full of marks now.

By K bayashi

I have many plastic bombs to explode in my room. "Bang" did the bomb explode last night. I am playing one in my room now.

By Kato

When these essays were completed I collected them, corrected the English, gave marks, and chose ten to fifteen of the best ones and typed them out. I honored the students whose writings had been chosen by having them read their work aloud in class, as I felt this would help raise the quality of writing in the class as a whole. The ones that I chose, however, were not necessarily linguistically good ones. We had so much fun reading the above examples because even though they were not grammatically perfect when originally submitted they contained ideas of interest to me and all of the students.

I continuously encouraged my students to write honestly whatever they wanted to express. I wanted to let them write vividly what they truly wanted to say rather than to copy or borrow linguistically perfect English from somewhere. I believed that if they had something to say I could help by providing the necessary words which they could retain as part of their language. But students need more than just permission to write, and I want to stress that the teacher has to give constant encouragement—verbal and nonverbal—to let the students write.

As can be seen in Table A, I assigned essays on "The Closest Person to You in Your Family" and "A Person You Respect" as the third and fourth free writing assignments. Therefore, by the time the students had to write letters to Thailand they had had a lot of structured practice and had come to enjoy writing (at least more than before) by being recognized for good work.

Assignment: Writing Letters to Thailand

When I felt the students in this particular class were ready to write solely for communication, I told them it was time to begin

the project of writing letters to Thai students. I explained the purpose and situation of this letter-writing assignment and divided the class (forty to forty-five students) into groups of four. I told them that they had to help each other, for I would be evaluating the letters on a point system, each student being awarded the average of the four scores in the group. I then gave them the beginning of the letter:

> Dear friend,
>
> Hello, my friend. How are you? Please forgive me for writing to you without knowing you at all. My English teacher, Miss Emiko Kitagawa, said to us the other day, "I am going to Thailand over this winter vacation, and so why don't you write to people there? That's the way you can practice your English and make friends overseas!"

They were instructed to complete the letter on their own in English at home. In the second and third classes, the four students in each group discussed and corrected their English together.

I collected the letters, checked them, gave marks and returned them to the students. The next class was dedicated to copying the corrected version onto beautiful stationery. With many we enclosed maps, gifts, and photos. I chose one student from each group to be responsible for seeing that each member of that group got all four letters finished and handed in, and even though it took time it was finally done.

My actual trip to Thailand during the Christmas break of that year was certainly a factor which made this letter communication very real; I could act as a sort of bridge between the students in the two countries. I visited Mim, my friend, at her school in Thailand that winter. To the Thai students, the additional information from me about their pen pals made the letter writing more meaningful. I took a lot of slides of the Thai school, the town, and the students. Since my students' letters had been sent before I went to Thailand, almost all of the Thai students had had enough time to finish writing answers by the time I left Thailand.

When I returned to Japan I showed the slides in class and talked a lot about the students I had met and the things I had seen. Some of my students actually saw their correspondents in the slides. I gave the letters (some containing photos) to my students and let each one read all four letters addressed to the members of the

group which he/she belonged to. I had them choose the most interesting and well-written letter of the four, collected these, typed them out, and let the students who had received these particular letters read them aloud in class. That was fun too, for my students did not know much about Thailand, and so anything—names, places, gifts, even the faces in the photos—could be interesting.

After two more months of training using the textbook and special writing assignments, I concluded the year by assigning a second letter to the Thai students (although some students had written a second or even a third letter and received replies, too, before I assigned the second letter writing in class). After sending the second letter as a class, any further correspondence was left to the students.

Reflections

At the end of the school year many students said that writing letters in English and actually receiving letters from overseas were exciting novelties for them. They said that because of this experience they had become interested in English.

A few students were disappointed because they did not receive an answer. Mim and I were very careful, but in spite of our efforts, there were some Thai students who were not motivated enough to write to the Japanese students. Therefore before I left Thailand, I had asked Mim to write to any of my students who might have ended up with no response. She did so and gave each one a beautiful post card. But it wasn't the same as receiving a letter from a student. They were hurt.

This project was a lot of work for me but I enjoyed it thoroughly, chiefly because the students enjoyed what they were doing. In fact, most said they came to like English better than before.

I also benefitted by getting to know my students better. Through reading what they wrote I came to know my students in a different way. For example, I found lovely expressions of unexpectedly mature opinions by students who were usually trouble-makers in the class. I came to love my students even more because of those findings, and they encouraged me to teach more enthusiastically.

I also learned that I should evaluate the students' English for its communicative quality rather than testing it exclusively for how many newly-learned expressions it contained.

Sharing good compositions and good letters helped the students a lot. They kept the drafts and final copies and used them as models for future reference.

I believe that writing to a friend for whom English is also a second language makes correspondence more exciting. For one, this arrangement teaches the students the importance of English as an international language, which it certainly is. Secondly, this is beneficial because both sides experience and empathize with the difficulty of using a second language to communicate. Thirdly, if the corresponding country is hardly known to the students, the letter writing can be a point at which the students can begin to learn about that country. That's a good way to motivate the students to learn things which may lead them to become more conscious of the internationalization of their country.

If we use photos, cassettes, and slides, we can make the correspondence very real. As a part of this particular project I myself went to Thailand. But in order to arrange this type of letter writing in an everyday English classroom, we do not have to fly each time to the country we want to correspond with. The teacher of the classes can simply exchange slides or photos of the school and the country with explanations recorded on cassette tapes.

I hope fun-loving English teachers all over the world who read this article get in touch with each other through *Cross Currents* and let their students communicate with each other through writing letters.

Radio Message: An EFL Board Game for Children

Metha Bos

As a teaching technique, games have been used successfully for many years to motivate, to provide an opportunity to practise deductive learning, and to manipulate concrete materials. They have also been used as a means to reinforce, consolidate, and revise information. Furthermore, games provide the perfect setting for peer teaching, thereby diminishing the role of the teacher as the dominant figure.

Of the numerous types of games available to the teacher, one of the most popular is the board game. Board games can be easily adapted to meet the special needs of the students and can provide an excellent format from which to create new games.

Up to now, however, board games have only been used to teach reading and speaking. But they can easily be used to teach listening skills as well. Instructions, directions, or pertinent information can be given in the form of taped messages. In this way, the student must understand the taped instruction in order to play the game.

For the past two years I have successfully used taped board games with Japanese children learning English as a foreign language. The games described here are geared to children between the ages of nine and twelve. However, depending on the ability of the students, it is also possible to use some of the games with children from six to eight.

When first beginning with taped board games, it is important to keep all the instructions very simple. Taped instructions should only include simple directions such as "Go forward two spaces" or "Go to the nearest _____." With this in mind, the first taped board game I devised was "Radio Message."

Radio Message (for six- to twelve-year-olds)

This game can be played by three to six players. In Radio Message, the players move through outer space, their ultimate goal being to reach Finish first. Along the way are Rest Stations, Enemy Camps, Blue Satellite spaces, and Radio Towers from which radio messages are transmitted.

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Rules of the Game

Each player begins at Start and throws a die in order to determine the number of spaces he can move.

If a player lands on a Radio Tower space, one taped instruction must be played. The player then carries out this instruction.

If a player lands on a Blue Satellite space, he must draw one of the Blue Satellite cards and follow the written instruction on the card.

If a player is in a Rest Station or an Enemy Camp, he must draw a Pass card for the former or a Key card for the latter before he can proceed. If he draws any of the other cards, he must remain where he is until his next turn, when he can draw another card. If he has obtained a Pass or Key card through the radio messages, he can use these to exit.

If a player lands on a Zap space, he must go back to the beginning and start again.

All other instructions are written on the playing board.

The Radio Messages

The radio messages are on tape. Each instruction on the tape is preceded by the announcement "Radio Message!" and concludes with the word "Stop." The radio messages are as follows:

Radio	message	. . . go to Enemy Camp #1	. . . stop
"	"	. . . take a Pass card	. . . "
"	"	. . . go to Rest Station #3	. . . "
"	"	. . . go to the nearest Blue Satellite space	. . . "
"	"	. . . take a Key card	. . . "
"	"	. . . go forward 2 spaces	. . . "
"	"	. . . go back 4 spaces	. . . "
"	"	. . . take a Pass card	. . . "
"	"	. . . go to the nearest Blue Satellite space	. . . "
"	"	. . . go to Enemy Camp #2	. . . "
"	"	. . . go to Zap	. . . "
"	"	. . . take a Key card	. . . "
"	"	. . . go to Rest Station #2	. . . "
"	"	. . . take a Pass card	. . . "
"	"	. . . go to the nearest Blue Satellite space	. . . "
"	"	. . . go to Enemy Camp #3	. . . "

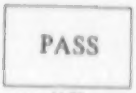
"	"	. . . take a Key card	. . . "
"	"	. . . go forward 3 spaces	. . . "
"	"	. . . take a Pass card	. . . "
"	"	. . . go to Rest Station #4	. . . "
"	"	. . . go to the nearest Blue Satellite space	. . . "
"	"	. . . take a Key card	. . . "
"	"	. . . go to Zap	. . . "
"	"	. . . take a Pass card	. . . "
"	"	. . . go to Rest Station #3	. . . "
"	"	. . . go to the nearest Blue Satellite space	. . . "
"	"	. . . go back 4 spaces	. . . "
"	"	. . . take a Key card	. . . "
"	"	. . . go to Enemy Camp #1	. . . "
"	"	. . . go forward 2 spaces	. . . "

Radio Message Cards

These cards accompany the messages given on the tape. As mentioned above, the Key cards and Pass cards allow the player to leave Rest Stations and Enemy Camps, respectively. The game includes ten of each kind of card.

Radio Message Card
Front

Back



(10)

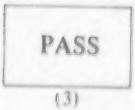
(10)

Rest Station Cards

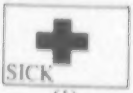
Each of the four Rest Stations has its own set of cards. Each set contains six cards: three Pass cards, one No Gas card, one Sick card, and one Repairs card. The Pass card allows the player to move out of the Rest Station and continue on his way. The other three cards force the player to remain in the Rest Station for at least one more turn.

Rest Station Card
Front

Back



(3)



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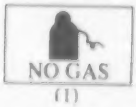


(1)

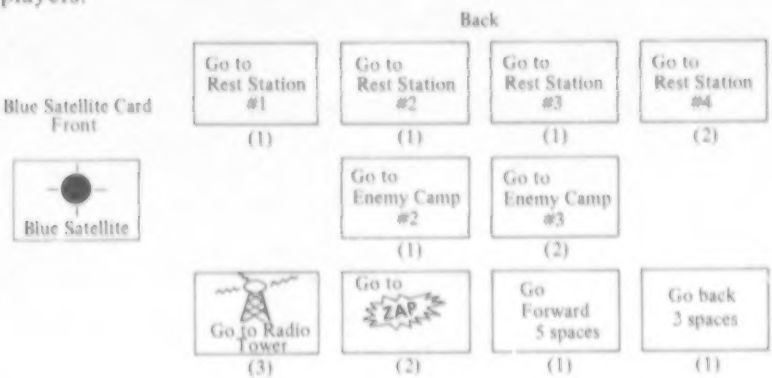
(1)

Enemy Camp Cards

Each of the three Enemy Camps also has its own set of cards. Each of these sets contains five cards: three Prison cards and two Key cards. The Key cards allow the players to flee the Enemy Camp while the Prison cards force them to stay.

Blue Satellite Cards

This set of fifteen cards accompanies the Blue Satellite spaces which are scattered about the playing board. Each card contains specific instructions which must be carried out immediately by the players.



Once the students clearly understand the game, I give them each a photocopy of the board and all the necessary cards. I also allow them to record the taped messages. They can thus take the game with them and play it at home. I did this with all the games I devised.

Beyond Radio Message

The purpose of the next game, "Body Parts" (for six- to twelve-year-olds), was to introduce new vocabulary. The object of the game is to be the first player to collect all of the twelve body parts. This game involves reading, speaking, and listening.

"Body Parts" was followed by "Treasure Hunt" (for nine- to twelve-year-olds), a game in which students try to reach the hidden treasure first. Instructions, which help or hinder the player, involve comprehending prepositions such as "in front of," "between," "behind," and so on. The instructions also introduce the students to new vocabulary items, such as "tree," "river," "hammer," and "shovel."

Next came "The Great Train Race" (for nine- to twelve-year-olds), a game which involves being able to tell the time. Taped instructions in this game combine all the various types of instructions used in the preceding three games.

My experience with taped board games has shown that not only were the students motivated but they also retained vocabulary with greater ease. They repeated the taped instructions each time they heard them and this helped to improve both pronunciation and listening skills. All in all, I recommend taped board games as a valuable addition to any curriculum designed with children in mind.

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One audio cassette with practice questions
One textbook
One instruction manual including model answers

Linguaphone Institute(Japan)Ltd.

Cross Currents
Vol. XI, No. 1
Spring 1984

Book Reviews

SIMULATIONS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING. Ken Jones. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1982. Pp. 122.
IT'S YOUR CHOICE. Michael Lynch. London: Edward Arnold Ltd., 1977. 48 role cards.
EIGHT SIMULATIONS. Leo Jones. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1983. Participant's Book, pp. 57; Controller's Book, pp. 137; and Cassette.

I recently had the opportunity to speak with Leo Jones, author of *Eight Simulations*, about his interest in the use of simulations for language learning:

> My own first experience of simulations came while I was teaching at a language school in Bournemouth on the South Coast of England. Our students came from all over the world to do intensive English courses. . . . Though our materials seemed to be working pretty well, we were still looking for some way of getting our students to use their English in school in the same way they might have to use it in real life.

He heard about Ken Jones' *Nine Graded Simulations* (1974), which were designed for British secondary school pupils and college students, and decided to try a simulation in his classroom. After the preparation activities, the action began:

> At first everyone seemed bewildered and looked at each other in dismay. Here they were left alone without any help from the teacher and expected to cope in English with a variety of problems to solve and decisions to make. Would they ever get started? Was their English good enough to sustain such a long period of communicating? Slowly at first and then more quickly everyone became involved in what they were doing and the action really did begin!
>
> The results were even better than we'd hoped. Everyone soon forgot that they were just pretending, and started to care strongly about the outcome of the meetings they were taking part in. They were interacting in what seemed like a totally authentic way and at the end, almost as a chorus, came the participants' evaluation: "We forgot we were talking English. When can we do another simulation?"

As Leo Jones explains, a simulation "is a representation of a series of real-life events":

> The classroom represents the setting where the events take place. The events are accelerated and simplified to fit them into the time available and to ensure the maximum amount of language activity. Most simulations last at least one hour and often longer. A simulation isn't just a "game" where everyone has a good time and tries to be the winner. And it isn't just a long role play exercise because, although participants may have to play roles in some simulations, no dramatic talents are required and participants remain *themselves* within the role and situation.

In this review, I'd like to look briefly at three sets of materials related to simulations. Ken Jones' *Simulations in Language Teaching* offers an excellent overview of the use of simulations in the language classroom. Michael Lynch's *It's Your Choice* consists of six "role-playing exercises" designed for native speakers (secondary school students) but which can be adapted for use in language teaching. And Leo Jones' *Eight Simulations* provides eight activities designed for upper-intermediate and advanced ESL students.

Simulations in Language Teaching will be a useful resource both for language teachers experienced in simulations and for those interested in trying out simulations for the first time. Ken Jones stresses that "the essence of a simulation is action":

> A simulation cannot be evaluated merely by reading the materials. It is not self-contained, like a text book. It has to occur, and what occurs may be different from what might be imagined by merely reading the documents. The best part of the simulation is usually a question mark, and the answer is left out of the documents, but is supplied in the action. (7)

Ken Jones offers detailed advice on how to choose a simulation and how to prepare for the activity in the classroom. Since many published simulations are not designed for the second- or foreign-language classroom, it is important to choose simulations at a suitable language level. At the same time, Jones warns against underestimating the ability of students to handle a simulation by misjudging the nature of the task or by failing to take into account the motivation engendered by the simulation itself. Although adaptation of an existing simulation is sometimes advisable, it can be dangerous in

that such modifications can undermine the authenticity or even the essential dynamic of the simulation. He therefore strongly recommends the use of trial runs to familiarize the teacher with the inner workings of any simulation which he or she is considering using in class.

Ken Jones takes the reader through the stages of selection and preparation, and then discusses the simulation activity itself and the subsequent debriefing. Like the reflection period in a CLL activity, the debriefing allows the participants to reflect upon their language and behavior during the course of the simulation. In order for a simulation to be successful, the teacher/controller must have a good understanding of both the nature of simulations in general and the specific simulation at hand. Without this understanding, the teacher will not be able to give the students a clear idea of the goal and nature of the activity they will be participating in, nor will he or she have the knowledge and the confidence which will allow the simulation to attain a life of its own. Jones' book can provide the teacher with the background needed to introduce successful simulations into the language classroom.

In *It's Your Choice*, Michael Lynch provides the materials for six simulations which can be adapted to fit the needs of ESL/EFL classrooms. Each simulation focuses on a different topic area, ranging from teenage violence to oil pollution. The information for each simulation is contained on a set of eight cards, representing eight roles. One side of each card contains basic information available to all the participants; the other side contains specific information related to each role. As in many simulation formats, giving the participants different information creates an "information gap" which provides the rationale for the communication activity and establishes various points of view in the subsequent activities.

The information on the cards is sufficient to provoke lively interaction among the participants but it is not so extensive as to be intimidating. The suggested format for each activity is the same: The teacher explains the exercise and divides the class into eight groups. Each group is assigned a role card and is given time to study the information and to prepare its stand. Next, the teacher calls upon each group of students to present its case. Finally, there is a general discussion.

Lynch provides only minimal instructions to the teacher and I suspect that it would be difficult (if not impossible) for a second

language teacher to use these simulations successfully without the sort of additional advice provided in a book like Ken Jones'. In order to give students more responsibility and to increase what Ken Jones calls the "reality of function" in a simulation, I have found it useful to modify Lynch's format so that a student serves as chairman for the general debate. Some language preparation may be necessary to prepare students for these simulations, although Ken Jones cautions against overpreparation: "There can be no dictating of language input in a simulation, since it would reduce or remove the power of the participants to say whatever they thought was most effective in the circumstances. If the chosen simulation is not beyond the general competence of the students, then it is advisable to leave language questions to the debriefing" (39).

In *Eight Simulations*, Leo Jones has taken care to provide both the teacher and the student with sufficient background and guidance for a successful simulation. For each unit, Jones offers advice about assigning roles, organizing time, and arranging space, plus a detailed description of the stages of the simulation itself. Each unit includes pre-discussion activities for students which introduce the theme of the simulation, highlight useful language, and give students a change to practice these new expressions. Each unit also contains follow-up activities.

While Lynch's role-playing activities often specify attitudes or arguments which the participants must incorporate into their role, Jones' simulations generally allow participants greater freedom to "be themselves." Often the participant acts as a member of a team which must complete an assigned task within the alloted time period—for example, the preparation of a news broadcast. Since Jones' simulations allow (and in fact require) more initiative on the part of the participants than do Lynch's, they are more suitable for higher level students.

One of the more unique features of Jones' book is the use of taped materials. These tapes usually take the form of news reports, although in one instance the tapes reveal rumors which may influence the groups' decisions. During the simulation, participants receive new information on tape and in writing, requiring the groups to expand or modify their positions. This flow of new information into the activity makes Jones' simulations more dynamic than Lynch's and provides an element of surprise which Jones feels is essential to the nature of simulations.

The supplementary materials for Jones' simulations—news reports, maps, interoffice memos, etc.—are designed to appear realistic, and in fact many of the materials have been reproduced from British newspapers. While this use of realistic materials undoubtedly gives "authenticity" to the simulation when used with students interested in contemporary Britain, it may make the material less accessible to students from other countries and cultures. As Henry Widdowson points out, authenticity is a characteristic not of the material itself but of the relationship between the material and the reader or listener: "We read what is relevant to our affairs or what appeals to our interests; and what is remote from our particular world we do not bother to read at all" (1978: 80). Of course, simulations by their very nature provide a context and significance to the related materials, yet students may still be puzzled or put off by references to "a pleasant Georgian seaside town" or may fail to be captivated by a news report which begins: "After a stunning first half, England were leading Argentina by 6 goals to nil. The Argentine defence were really at sixes and sevens. . . ." For this reason, Jones' materials (and Lynch's as well) may not fit the needs of students being trained to use English in international settings.

Eight Simulations consists of a Participant's Book, a Controller's Book, and a cassette, all of which are essential for using the simulations.

Eight Simulations, *It's Your Choice*, and *Simulations in Language Teaching* have all been useful to me in bringing simulations into my classroom, and I recommend them to any teacher interested in exploring the world of simulations. Leo Jones offers these words of encouragement:

> Why not take the plunge? If you can, team up with another teacher so that you can share the responsibility and support each other. Believe me, you'll be amazed by what happens and impressed by how well your students can use English to communicate with each other. But I know that words aren't adequate here because, as Ken Jones says, "A simulation is like a strawberry. It has to be tasted to be appreciated."

Andrew Blasky

Andrew Blasky is an instructor at the Language Institute of Japan and editor of *Cross Currents*. He received his Ph.D. in English Language and Literature from the University of California, Berkeley.

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ENGLISH FOR INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES. Anthony Fitzpatrick. Oxford: Pergamon Press Ltd., 1982. Pp. 63.

English is now the most frequently used language at international gatherings, and even those professionals with a firm knowledge of basic English grammar and vocabulary often feel the need to improve their mastery of the specific kind of spoken language they are likely to encounter at international conferences.

It is for these people that Anthony Fitzpatrick's book, *English for International Conferences*, is designed. It is an impressive, though not comprehensive, language course, providing practice structures and linguistic strategies for those who attend international conferences in the fields of science, economics, politics, and administration.

The book concentrates on listening with some attention to, among other things, oral repetition of the most important grammatical structures and phrases. In addition, the listening comprehension exercises help the student to develop his power of anticipation: he fills in the missing words, cross-marks the correct answers, and then checks his response in the key and the tapescript.

Material for language practice is organized into four short units: Travelling, Making Social Contacts, Plenary Session, and Working Groups. Each unit contains a Dramatized Conversation (the complete text is given at the end of the book), Structural Drills (to provide practice in the use of particular grammatical forms; for example, the difference between the present perfect and simple past), Language Strategy Drills (drills which practise a fixed strategy or expression), a Dialogue (a short conversation with emphasis on correct pronunciation, intonation, and mastery of useful words and phrases), an Active Listening Exercise (fill-in-the-gaps), a Listening Comprehension Exercise (multiple choice form), and Useful Words and Phrases (a summary of the language strategies used in the unit). The units have been given continuity through the dramatized conversations in which there are three main characters: Dr. Schneider, Dr. Barker, and Dr. Grey. Several others join them to provide the required social dimensions.

What I most appreciate in the book is the avoidance of subject-specific vocabulary. The author rightly maintains that it is not the specific vocabulary of a particular subject which causes the most trouble, but the use of "everyday" English and the lack of famili-

arity with the linguistic strategies required for the mastery of those situations which recur at different types of meetings.

Anthony Fitzpatrick offers the adult learner the linguistic techniques necessary for carrying out many of the functions which people who attend conferences need to be familiar with. In a discussion on Working Groups, for example, he deals firstly with general functions such as asking for repetition (Would you mind saying that again, please?) and raising questions (Excuse me, Mr. Chairman, would it be possible for us to discuss the last point in more detail?), and moves to more specific functions such as opening a meeting (Shall we get down to business?), introducing a speaker (I'm sure you all know Dr. Green), establishing a topic (Now the first area we have chosen is . . .), and closing a meeting (Well, I think that covers everything).

But are these categorizations regarding specific functions adequate? Apart from linguistic factors, there are nonverbal aspects like facial expression, personal distance, and body movements that can cause miscommunication in international interaction. To meet the demands that communicative competence places on a nonnative speaker of English, a systematic evaluation of his problems of syntax, semantics, pronunciation, and nonverbal behaviour—and their categorization in terms of specific functions—seems vital. A world-wide method of standard speech communication including a common pronunciation is equally necessary.

The sociolinguistic norms of native speakers of English may not be relevant in an international setting, but for effective participation in debate, discussion, analysis, and exposition, it should be possible to develop a pattern of rhetoric which is multinational and multicultural. It appears to me that the problems of interaction in international gatherings need further investigation. There is a need for a more complete model of English as an international language for conferences than the one Fitzpatrick has implicitly offered in *English for International Conferences*.

R.K. Singh

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Announcements

ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE (EIL): ISSUES AND IMPLICATIONS. July 3-August 10, 1984; Honolulu, Hawaii. Sponsored by the Culture Learning Institute of the East-West Center. The seminar is designed for native and non-native speakers of English who train teachers, write materials, or develop language policy. For more information, write to: Larry E. Smith, EIL Coordinator, Culture Learning Institute, East-West Center, 1777 East-West Road, Honolulu, Hawaii 96848.

PROGRAM IN INTERNATIONAL MANAGEMENT COMMUNICATIONS. September 17-22, 1984; Odawara, Japan. The International Management Communications program sponsored by the Language Institute of Japan (LIOJ) will focus on problems in using English for cross-cultural communication in business. The program has been designed to assist businessmen in developing techniques of clarifying misunderstanding and avoiding or resolving cultural miscommunication. Registration deadline: September 1, 1984. For further information, write to: Director, Language Institute of Japan, 4-14-1 Shiroyama, Odawara, Kanagawa, 250 Japan.

JALT INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING. November 23-25, 1984; Tokyo, Japan. The Japan Association of Language Teachers (JALT) will hold its tenth annual conference at Tokai University Yoyogi Campus, Tokyo. Proposals for papers, demonstrations, etc. must be received by August 1, 1984. For more information, write to: Carrie Hansen, Program chair, JALT c/o Kyoto English Center, Sumitomo Seimei Bldg., Karasuma Shiji Nishi-iru, Shimogyo-ku, Kyoto 600 Japan.

Call for Papers: TECHNOLOGY IN LANGUAGE TESTING. The Seventh Annual Language Testing Research Colloquium sponsored by Educational Testing Service (ETS) will be held on the ETS campus in Princeton, N.J. on April 6 and 7, 1985. The theme will be Technology in Language Testing. For the purposes of the Colloquium, technology is understood to mean the use of computer hardware and software in the assessment of second language skills. Researchers interested in presenting a paper should submit four copies of a one-page abstract (250-400 words) by October 15, 1984. Two copies of the abstract should display the presenter's name, affiliation, address, and telephone number in the upper right-hand corner. Please send abstracts to: Charles Stanfield, Language Testing Research Colloquium, Educational Testing Service, 05-P, Princeton, NJ 08541-0001.

TESOL 19th ANNUAL CONVENTION. April 9–14, 1985; New York Hilton, New York City. Non-TESOL members may obtain detailed information by writing to: TESOL, 201 D.C. Transit Building, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C. 20057, USA.

JERUSALEM CONFERENCE ON TEFL-TESOL. July 14–18, 1985; Jerusalem, Israel. The main theme of the Conference is The Role of Communication in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning. Deadline for submission of abstracts is March 31, 1985. For further information, please contact: Conference Secretariat, Jerusalem Conference of TESL-TESOL, International Ltd., 12 Shlomzion Hamalkah St., Jerusalem 94146, Israel.

Call for Papers: COMMUNICATION AND SIMULATION. In 1986, the International Simulation and Gaming Association (ISAGA) will hold its 17th International Conference at the University of Toulon, France, on the theme of Communication. For further information, write either to: David Crookall, University of Toulon, 83130 LA GARDE, France; or to: Danny Saunders, The Polytechnic of Wales, Pontypridd, Mid-Glamorgan CF37 1DL, Wales.

WHIM & WHIMSY

CALL FOR PAPERS

The Fourth National WHIM Humor Conference will be held on the campus of Arizona State Univ. March 29 to April 1, 1985. The conference theme for WHIM IV is **HUMOR ACROSS THE DISCIPLINES. KEYNOTE SPEAKERS** for WHIM IV include: **RED BILODEAU**, Creative Lunatics, **H. DOUGLAS BROWN**, Past President of TESOL, **JAMES M. COX**, New Hampshire Author, **VICTORIA FROMKIN**, President of the Linguistic Society of America, **MARY LOU GALICIAN**, ASU and Fun Dynamics, **JOEL GOODMAN**, Editor of Laughing Matters, **NORMAN S. GRABO**, Oklahoma Author, **STANLEY MYRON HANDELMAN**, California Professor and Stand-up Comic, **MELVIN HELITZER**, Ohio Author (MC of third annual Larry-Wilde Joke Telling Contest), **ROSS V. HERSEY**, National Speakers Association, **JEFFREY S. HOLMES**, Director, Canadian Conference for the Arts, **ROBERT MICKLUS**, New York Author, **LARRY MINTZ**, Editor of American Humor, **VICTOR RASKIN**, Indiana Author, **ALBERT SCHATZ**, Chancelor Extraordinaire of Twerpwyck University, **ALVIN SCHWARTZ**, New Jersey Author, **DANNY SIMON**, Director, Em Vee Productions, **VIRGINIA O. TOOPER**, Editor, Laugh Lovers News, and **LARRY WILDE**, California Author.

Additional **potential** keynoters include: **STEVE BENSON**, Arizona Republic Cartoonist, **ERMA BOMBECK**, Arizona Author, **RICHARD H. CRACROFT**, Dean of Humanities, BYU, **WILLARD R. ESPY**, New York Author, **BIL KEANE**, Arizona Syndicated Cartoonist, **JOSEPH TROISE**, President, International Dull Men's Club.

Please send your name, department, affiliation, address, telephone number, title of presentation, subject of presentation, cross-reference subject of presentation, a one-page abstract, and a $35.00 registration fee to Don Nilsen, WHIM, English Department, ASU, Tempe, AZ 85287. The $35 fee will include a copy of WHIMSY IV which will contain excerpts of your paper. B.C.N.U.

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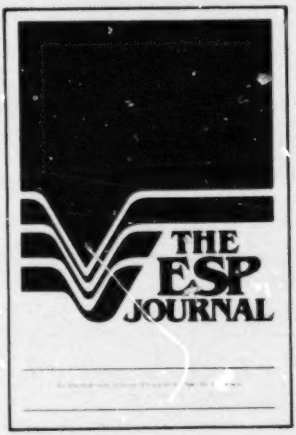

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Editor: G STOVALL MANCILL, *English Language Institute, The American University, Washington DC, USA*
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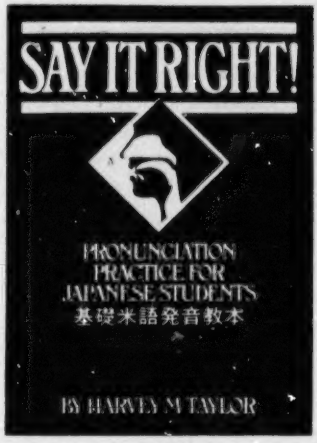

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